Job Demands, Job Resources, Wellbeing and Student Outcomes: A Study of Sign Language Interpreter Educators' Perceptions

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ABSTRACT

This multi-phase study aims to improve understanding of sign language interpreter educators' perceptions of their work experiences in relation to student-learning outcomes, as it specifically relates to the readiness to work gap. The analytical framework used to underpin this study is Job Demands-Resources theory (Bakker and Demerouti 2014), which considers the relationships between employees job demands and job resources. These factors have been used to predict employee wellbeing in terms of work engagement and burnout, as well as to predict individual job performance of the employee and the success of the organisation as a whole. This study is unique, as it has placed sign language interpreter education within the context of higher education, and explores how sign language interpreter educators perceive their work experiences as a contributing factor to the readiness to work gap, rather than focusing solely on student abilities. Therefore, findings of this study call for an increased understanding of the relationships between the professional domain and higher education and the expectations each have for the other in relation to student readiness.

The Job Demands-Resources Survey-Interpreter Educators is a tool that was created to explore sign language interpreter educators' job demands, job resources and how they perceive such factors to influence student-learning outcomes. A total of 66 sign language interpreter educators participated in this study. By way of convenience sampling, 29 sign language interpreter educators participated in a follow up survey, incorporating the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey, Utrecht Work Engagement Survey-17, and the Areas of Worklife Survey. These tools were used to explore overall wellbeing and identify possible domains of work that may influence burnout. Results of these studies indicate that while sign language interpreter educators have high job demand and low job resources, they are accessing their personal resources (e.g. self-efficacy and motivation) to buffer some of the impact their job demands have on them, while remaining engaged in their work. However, results also identified that sign language interpreter educators experience high levels of emotional exhaustion and perceive their workload related demands to negatively impact the student learning experience, and they lack confidence in their graduates' readiness to work.

DEDICATION

To sign language interpreter educators-

Because Your Voice Matters

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I am extremely fortunate to have had the support of family, friends and colleagues since this project began. I would first like to express my gratitude to the School of Social Sciences for funding this research. Having been awarded a scholarship to pursue the highest academic level of achievement and to conduct this study has been life changing. It has opened up many doors personally and professionally that I am forever grateful for. I am also extremely appreciative to the sign language interpreter educators who participated in this study, as it is through their participation that aspects of the lived experience of sign language interpreter educators could be revealed.

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Chapter 1-Introduction

Within our various communities, deaf people are considered members of linguistic and cultural minority groups (Padden and Humphries 1990; Lane, 1992). Similar to other minority groups that differentiate from the social majority, deaf people have experienced oppression and discrimination. In the form of audism deaf people have often been excluded from accessing basic human rights (Lane 1992: Ladd 2003; Bauman 2004; Swachten 2010). While not considered the only solution to eliminate oppression and discrimination of deaf people, the provision of qualified sign language interpreters increases opportunities for deaf people to access mainstream society (Jokinen 2000 as cited in Nisula and Manunen 2009). However, the continued use of unqualified interpreters has a direct impact on deaf people individually as well as on deaf communities as a whole (Schick et al. 2006; Woodcock et al. 2007; Collins and Walker 2006). When *unqualified* and *inappropriately trained* sign language interpreters are unable to appropriately provide interpreting services due to lack of skills, not only will deaf people be denied access to basic human rights (social security, education, employment), they will remain unequal to the social majority (Brennan et al. 2005; Schick et al. 2006; Yates 2017). Furthermore, as these communication disparities continue, the bias historically reflected upon the minority deaf population is falsely validated. Consequently, not at their choosing, the deaf population remains an unequal sub set of the communities in which they interact and the cycle of oppression and discrimination continues.

Sign language interpreters serve as facilitators for linguistic and cultural exchanges between those who use sign language and those who do not. Cokely (2001, p. 4) describes interpretation as,

> The competent and coherent use of one naturally evolved language to express the meanings and intentions conveyed in another naturally evolved language for the purpose of negotiating an opportunity for a successful communicative interaction in real time within a triad involving two principal individuals or groups who are incapable of using, or prefer not to use, the language of the other individual or group.

Interpreters work in a variety of environments including but not limited to: education, government, business, social services, and medical and legal fields. Considering the various work settings where the application of interpreting services is needed, it is an appropriate expectation that interpreters have a strong base knowledge and appropriate skill sets to

interpret an array of topics. This knowledge is the foundation for effectively and accurately communicating the interactions occurring in those specialised settings. Cokely (2001) claims interpretations will be unsuccessful if the interpreter does not understand the original meaning or intent of the speaker. This requires interpreters to know the languages of those within the exchange, but also the nature of the communication acts which include context, linguistic register, affect, communication goals, listening styles, directness, and language choices of participants. Further, interpreters should be able to identify cultural influences on communication and interpersonal behaviour (Alcorn and Humphrey 2007). In essence, while interpreters are noting cultural and linguistic features, they are also managing turn-taking and interaction dynamics while simultaneously conducting an interpretation (Wadensjo 2014). If interpreters lack knowledge, skills or abilities to understand cultural and linguistic idiosyncrasies of individuals, miscommunications with serious ramifications may occur (e.g. wrong diagnoses in healthcare and miscarriages of justice). To date, news reports, lawsuits and research studies demonstrate that unqualified sign language interpreters are in fact providing inadequate interpreting services (Czernieiewski 2012; Kulish et al. 2013; Clark 2012; Martin 2012; Cao 2014). The use of unqualified interpreters appears to be related to the slow professionalisation of the sign language interpreting field.

1.1 Professionalisation of Sign Language Interpreting

Bontempo (2013, p. 34) argues that sign language interpreting is not a truly established profession but rather a *semi-profession.* She cites Hudson's (2002) description of a semi-profession as an occupational group holding characteristics of a profession but to a lesser extent. Bontempo (2013) supports her claim by stating there is currently no way to fully regulate and control those who practice as sign language interpreters or officially suspend those from practice based on misconduct. Further, she suggests there is simply no "uniformly applied standards of practice, years of requisite training with significant intellectual component, or registration boards with legal authority" (Bontempo 2013, p.34). The current state of the profession of sign language interpreting appears to be a result of its community roots.

Historically, interpreting services were voluntarily delivered to deaf people by their family members, members of the clergy, or by people who worked in other professional capacities such as teachers of the deaf or welfare workers (Singleton and Tittle 2000; Cokely 2005; Stone 2010). These early interpreting service providers were not formally educated as

professional sign language interpreters as this opportunity did not exist at the time. Thus, because deaf people needed access to the world around them they thereby relied on people who they trusted, regardless of formal qualifications, to provide interpreting services. Mathers and Witter-Merithew (2014) describe how deaf communities essentially vetted those becoming interpreters to ensure they had the appropriate skills, temperament and character to serve and protect the interests of the deaf people. However, deaf people were not alone in wanting to protect the interests of their communities, and those entrusted as interpreters believed that by professionalising they could *better* safeguard interpreting services (Stone 2010; Napier 2011).

The establishment of professional sign language interpreting organisations, government mandated legislation and the development of professional standards have served an instrumental role in the professionalisation of sign language interpreting (Leeson and Lynch 2009; Napier 2011). Equal opportunity legislation has increased the demands for professional sign language interpreters with considerations of quality being addressed, thereby initiating the development of professional standards (Pöchhacker 1999; Swabey and Mickelson 2008; Napier 2011). Increased disability discrimination or civil rights legislation across nations requires public services to be made accessible through the provision of sign language interpreters (Hale 2012; Stone 2010). In response to the professionalisation of sign language interpreting and the establishment of formal interpreter education opportunities, communication access has increased for deaf sign language users in a variety of contexts. However, deaf communities no longer select their interpreters who have established ties to their language and culture (Cokely 2005), leaving businesses and organisations to hire interpreters, often without the input of the deaf consumers. Consequently, due to the fact such organisations may not have a suitable understanding of what skills and abilities one must have to provide such services (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005), they may always select the most appropriate or qualified service providers to serve as sign language interpreters.

Although the provision of interpreters is a legal requirement across many nations[1], what qualifications allow an interpreter to practice remains less clear, allowing individuals to work as sign language interpreters with insufficient abilities (Stewart and Kluwin 1996; Schick et

[1] Some nations have yet to professionalise sign language interpreting, and/or continue to not recognize the sign language of their country as a language.

al. 1999). This challenge has instigated key stakeholders, chiefly those involved with professional sign language interpreting organisations, to stress the importance of the quality of interpreting services and have set out to identify roles and functions of sign language interpreters, develop screenings to formally credential and register interpreters they deem fit to practice, and access interpreter education to enhance the skills of those entering the profession. However, because governments often do not regulate what qualifications one must hold to practice (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2004; Timmermans 2005; McKee 2011), there are varying degrees of interpreting quality in the workforce. In hopes to improve the quality of the workforce, key stakeholders in those nations farther along in the professionalisation process have turned to sign language interpreter education programmes to be the 'gatekeepers' of who enters the workforce (Hunt and Nicodemus 2014).

1.2 Interpreter Education

The increase in legislation and professional standards was the precursor to the development of formalised interpreter education programs (Napier et al. 2006; Napier 2004). Prior to formalised education and training, smaller scale sign language interpreting courses were offered by deaf community centres and agencies (Hoti and Emerson 2009; Nelson et al. 2009). Today, some of these more informal training opportunities exist, especially across those nations that have not recognised sign language as an official language nor view sign language interpreting as a legitimate profession, and therefore in some countries formal education opportunities remain non-existent (Cleaver 2005; Napier 2009). However, within those nations that have made progress in the professionalisation of sign language interpreting, the type of education and length of training for sign language interpreting has evolved, but remains variable, as interpreter education is offered at vocational, undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

As mentioned in section 1.1, today sign language interpreter educators are the new gatekeepers responsible in assessing students' fitness to practice as sign language interpreters (Hunt and Nicodemus 2014). Yet, many sign language interpreter educators have expressed difficulty in preparing students to master knowledge, skills and abilities essential for the workplace, which they believe leaves some graduates unfit for practice (Peterson 2006; Swabey and Mickelson 2008); this is a phenomenon that has become known as the readiness to work gap (RWG). This term describes how interpreting students are generally not employment ready upon graduation from interpreter education programmes (Patrie 1994).

This phenomenon is heavily discussed by stakeholders of the sign language interpreting profession such as practitioners, educators, and deaf people who use interpreters regularly (Anderson and Stauffer 1990; Patrie 1994; Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005; Bontempo and Napier 2007; Napier 2009; Godfrey 2010; Walker and Shaw 2011; Cogen and Cokely 2015; Carter 2015). Cogan and Cokely (2015) suggest that the RWG can be addressed by sign language interpreter education programmes. They propose six actions that they believe will improve student learning outcomes and lessen the RWG. These actions include increasing language fluency for students, which can be achieved by enhancing their involvement with deaf communities and by hiring more deaf personnel to the programme, specifically deaf sign language interpreters. Additionally, they propose that sign language interpreter educators should conduct research on job types and associated risks and then align the goals of their programme to the lower risk job types. Their final suggestion is that sign language interpreter education programmes should provide a structured post-graduation pathway that lead students from low risk jobs to higher risk jobs. While their suggestions are relatively straight forward, it is important to consider the feasibility of implementing such changes under the current climate of higher education.

The need for qualified sign language interpreters is a continuing demand (Lesson et al. 2014; Napier and Leeson 2016) is further discussed in Chapter 2 (section 2.3), and hence it is increasingly important to address the RWG phenomenon. Moreover, considering how graduates from interpreting programmes are able to find employment due to the shortage of qualified sign language interpreters and lack of government regulation, regardless of their level of competence. Furthermore, while sign language interpreter education programmes have developed and improved over the years (Napier 2004; Napier 2009), Leeson et al. (2014) argue that as deaf people have had increased educational and professional opportunities, their expectations of the quality of services interpreters can provide have also increased. Yet, the training provided in sign language interpreter education programmes (more notably programmes which are not grounded in research) have been unable to keep up, which has directly impacted the quality of services deaf people receive. Moreover as was described in the preceding section, this difficulty also appears to be deeply rooted in the slow professionalisation and status of the sign language interpreting profession.

Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2004) describe this trend of graduate employment as a lack of quality control within the sign language interpreting profession due to market disorder, a

term often used in the field of economics (Philips 1997). Market disorder associated with a profession refers to "the difficulties a business or profession has in securing and maintaining control over the variables that impact operations and delivery of goods or service" (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2004, p. 2). Thus, due to the lack of statutory regulation, required licensing, formal mentorship and supervision, graduates at any skill level are able to find work as professional sign language interpreters and thereby potentially provide ineffective interpreting services. As a consequence, the onus is on interpreter education programmes, again emphasising their role as the new 'gatekeepers' of who enter the workforce (Hunt and Nicodemus 2014), a role that may become increasingly difficult in the current climate of academia (see: Chapter 2).

Sign language interpreter educators have the responsibility to educate students to become practitioners; yet, they themselves generally do not hold the same academic qualifications (e.g. PhDs) as their peers in other disciplines (Monikowski 2013). The academic level of sign language interpreter educators has much to do with how the interpreting profession itself has been considered an emerging profession (Gibson 1989; Napier 2011; Bontempo 2013). However, Monikowski (2013) argues, and Bontempo (2013) agrees, that the profession's youth is no longer an adequate excuse for educators to not be held to the same standards as academic counterparts across other disciplines. Furthermore, Bontempo (2013) asserts that whilst some interpreter educators may argue doctoral programmes specific to sign language interpreting are simply unavailable, many countries do offer a range of relevant qualifications that interpreter educators could attain to enhance their academic backgrounds (e.g. teaching, curriculum and instructional design, linguistics etc.). Therefore, while there may be a lack of postgraduate programmes specific to the interpreting domain (Hale 2007), if interpreter educators elect to not pursue *relevant* postgraduate education (e.g. education, linguistics, intercultural communication), the quality of the training and research these educators can provide is jeopardised (Hale 2007; Monikowski 2013; Winston 2013). Moreover, Van den Bogaerde (2017) described an account where Professor Graham Turner, visited her institution in the Netherlands, and gave a presentation to interpreting students and educators in 2004. Professor Turner quoted several instrumental pieces of research during his presentation, leaving students and staff bewildered, unaware of the names and studies he described. From this point forward, Van den Bogaerde and her colleagues, made instrumental changes to their interpreter education programme, which included doing more research, embedding research into their programme and also teaching research skills (Van

den Bogaerde 2017). Through this account, she emphasised the importance of research to be conducted by both staff and students and that research should be integrated into sign language interpreter education programmes. Sign language interpreter educators must remain engaged with research activities; if they do not, their teaching practices will lack currency, and students will not have the opportunity to connect theory to practice which is essential for their professional development (Napier 2005). Further, when sign language interpreters do not include research into their curricula, they are also not effectively cultivating a learning environment where students develop the research skills they need to continue to engage with, participate in and conduct research after graduation; research that eventually could aid in improved services for deaf people, as well as further propel the field of sign language interpreting into a legitimised profession.

Napier (2009) showcases interpreter education across 15 countries around the globe. While contributors to the volume described similar historical trajectories of interpreter education emerging from the roots of deaf communities, they depicted an array of difficulties interpreter education programmes face within their respective countries. From these discussions recurrent themes emerged that include a need for resources, difficulties working within the confines of higher education systems and its constraints (such as programme duration and contact hours), the need for continuous curriculum development and the demand for qualified interpreter educators. Classroom resources and appropriate curricula are needed for effective teaching, yet in many cases both need to be developed or enhanced to match the changing landscape of the interpreting profession (Nisula and Manunen 2009; McKee et al. 2009). Due to the lack of resources available[2], teachers are forced to create their own teaching and practice materials (Wilson and McDade 2009), which alone may be challenging for the educators since many do not have formal training on teaching sign language or interpreting skills (Bontempo and Levitzke-Gray 2009; Grbić 2009; Malcolm and Howard 2009; Leeson and Lynch 2009; Hein 2009; McKee et al. 2009). Additionally, Bontempo and Levitzke-Gray (2009) explain how many interpreter educators in Australia may impact the student learning experience, because educators have limited interactions with each other, leaving educators to independently design materials and assessment instruments

[2] Types of materials needed vary from country to country. For example in Kosovo, theoretical resources need to be translated into Albanian so students can access them in their native language (Hoti and Emerson 2009) while in the Netherlands and Canada there is a need for sign language resources representing the dialects and sign languages across their countries (Crasborn and Bloem 2009; Malcolm and Howard 2009).

with little peer review. They believe such actions lead to variability amongst student groups. In addition to the need for more classroom materials and updated curricula, the educators described constraints established by the educational system at large that create additional challenges. One such challenge is programme duration (Nisula and Manunen 2009; Leeson and Lynch 2009; McKee et al. 2009) and minimal contact hours (McKee et al. 2009). Contributors to Napier (2009) view these systematic constraints as creating insufficient learning environments and thus, perceive students to not be able to fully develop needed competencies to work as sign language interpreters. Contributors from Australia, Austria, Canada, Ireland, Sweden and New Zealand all described their needs for qualified interpreter educators. Not only are many educators not at the same academic levels as their counterparts in other disciplines, as previously described, reports in Napier (2009) show how many educators themselves have never undertaken formal interpreter training (Grbić 2009; Hein 2009). This lack of formal training may contribute to the difficulties in recruiting and maintaining quality human resources (McKee et al. 2009). Concerns are specifically raised about not having enough educators with linguistic competencies to effectively teach the sign languages of their nations (Leeson and Lynch 2009; Wilson and McDade 2009), which consequently has an impact on interpreter education (Leeson and Lynch 2009). Further concerns were expressed as to who the next generation of interpreter educators will be, as the same people have been in place for the last two decades (Malcolm and Howard 2009). Moreover, Bontempo and Levitzke-Gray (2009) described how when educators wish to receive formal training in Australia they do so in their own time and with their own financial resources, as the higher education institutions themselves are not supporting sign language interpreter educators with professional development opportunities. In sum, Bontempo and Levitzke-Gray (2009) suggest that educators lack three types of resources (including human, financial and physical), and these experiences appear to be a challenge for sign language interpreter educators at large.

Other scholars have also reported the need for resources for teaching sign language and sign language interpreting skills. For example, Quinto-Pozos (2011) explains that while there are many resources for introductory sign language courses in the United States, more advanced courses are much more limiting, indicating a lack of resources for advanced language and interpreting classes. Some researchers have created online corpora of sign language and Rantham (2016) suggests incorporating such corpora into teaching. However they do not all appear to be designed with teaching in mind. For example, the British Sign Language

Corpus (Schembri et al. 2011) has an array of video clips students can work with to enhance receptive and interpreting skills. However, the videos are organised by region, and age, not by theme or skill level. Therefore, if sign language interpreter educators want to use such corpora for teaching, they are required to spend time searching for appropriate videos to best scaffold learners. Resource development conducted by educators may be a tedious task depending upon the amount of time and/or background they have.

Moreover, while there has been no research conducted on the personality characteristics and traits of sign language interpreter educators, there have been studies on the personality characteristics of sign language interpreter practitioners (Seal 2004; Bontempo 2014). Since many sign language interpreter educators serve in a dual role as interpreter practitioners, these studies are applicable in many cases. Studies conducted by Seleskovitch (1978) and Henderson (1987), have identified interpreters as self-confident, possessing the ability to take control and manage challenging situations. Since interpreter educators have typically been interpreters first, it is plausible they hold similar characteristics and traits and are able to rely on them when dealing with some of the more challenging experiences they encounter.

Previous studies have set out to understand the skills and abilities one must have to be a competent interpreting student and professional interpreter. For example, these studies demonstrate the importance of interpreters' cognitive abilities, perceptual motor coordination and personalities (e.g. Rudser and Strong 1986; Seal 2004; Shaw and Hughes 2006; Gomez et al. 2007; Bontempo and Napier 2011; Timarová and Salaets 2011; Shaw 2011; Bontempo 2012; Bontempo et al. 2014). Other studies attempt to identify factors and characteristics constituting an effective interpreter education programme (Simon 1994; Godfrey 2010). Godfrey (2010) found programme duration, curriculum factors (e.g. inclusion of service learning opportunities and practicum), as well as individual characteristics of educators make a difference in the student learning experience. Additionally, some studies explore pedagogical practices for sign language interpreter educators such as discourse mapping, interactive role-plays, and metacognition recall protocols. Other studies describe the use of Demand-Control schema; the importance of creating service learning opportunities and integrating inventive technologies such as iPads and supportive software such as VoiceThread (See for example: Winston and Monikowski 2005; Metzger 2005; Monikowski and Peterson 2005; Dean and Pollard 2005, 2013; Shaw and Roberson 2009; Ehrlich and Napier 2015; Webb and Ehrlich 2016). While these studies provide innovative ways for

interpreter educators to improve their practice, they do not explore whether or not sign language interpreter educators have the means to do so, as they do not conceptualise sign language interpreter educators' experiences within the higher education system nor how their experiences may contribute, if at all, to the RWG that graduates encounter.

1.3 Educator Experiences

Educator experiences across academia have been explored in the literature and are described in Chapter 2 (section 2.5) of this thesis. This body of research has widely discussed how working conditions for academics are declining (Altbach 2015); workloads are rising (Kyvik 2013), and the administrative and structural processes of traditional higher education have changed (Kezar and Maxey 2013). Furthermore, as will be described in Chapter 2, neoliberal values have spread throughout academia, which has impacted the day-to-day operations of higher education. Consequently, academics are facing new and increasing levels of pressure that affect their working lives.

Hattie (1992, 1993, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2008) has synthesised over 500,000 studies on the links between teachers, home, peers, schools, school administrators, students and student achievement. Although Hattie's research primarily focus on non-higher education institutions, his studies have shown the significant influence teachers have in the classroom and their impact on student learning outcomes. He has identified that feedback, instructional quantity (e.g. contact hours/duration), class environment, assignments and assessments among other factors will affect student achievement (Hattie 2008). Therefore, in order for educators to have a positive impact on student achievement, it is important that their health and wellbeing is at an optimal level, since wellbeing can impact job performance (Bakker and Demerouti 2014). Furthermore, when considering the current neoliberal climate of higher education, and the influence educators themselves have on student achievement, it becomes increasingly necessary to understand experiences of sign interpreter educators within higher education, as student abilities alone may not be the only reason for the RWG.

Researchers have developed theoretical models to address aspects of employees' work-lives, not specific to one particular occupation. For example, Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory, described in Chapter 2, has been applied to various occupations such as nursing, dentists, and call centres (Demerouti et al. 2000; Hakanen et al. 2005; Lewig and Dollard 2003). Demerouti and Bakker (2011, p.1) describe JD-R theory as a framework that organisations can use "to improve employee health and motivation, whilst simultaneously

improving various organisational outcomes". JD-R theory has been studied in combination with a series of psychological assessment tools known as the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (which was adapted for educational professionals as the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES) (Maslach et al. 1996), and the Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS) (Leiter and Maslach (2011). In relation to JD-R theory, which proposes employees will experience one of two processes: 1) a motivational process connected with job resources, or 2) an energy driven process connected to job demands, these survey instruments can explore employees' wellbeing in terms of level of burnout (via the MBI-ES) and engagement (the UWES). The AWS specifically seeks to understand six domains of the working environment that may contribute to one's feelings of engagement or burnout. Considering how the findings from other studies applying JD-R theory have linked employee wellbeing to individual job performance, as well as the performance of the organisation as a whole (see: Chapter 2, Section 2.6), by applying JD-R theory to sign language interpreter educators we will be able to better understand the working conditions for sign language interpreter educators within higher education institutions and their perceptions of how those conditions impact their wellbeing and job performance. This information is especially important to consider when identifying possible contributing factors to the RWG faced by graduates, and therefore provides reason to further investigate sign language interpreter educator work experiences and how such factors may impact student achievement, and the overall success of the interpreter education programme.

1.4 My Role as a Sign Language Interpreter Educator

As a sign language interpreter educator, I have often seen how the neoliberal educational environments I have worked in limit my performance, which I also believe impacts the quality of the student learning experience. Hence, I was drawn to this topic to understand the experiences of other sign language interpreter educators in relation to my own, but to better understand possible influences the educational environment has on the widely discussed RWG faced by sign language interpreting graduates. Since JD-R theory is a framework that can be applied to any occupation (Demerouti et al. 2001), by applying it to sign language interpreter educators to identify what job demands sign language interpreter educators face, what job resources they need versus what may be available to them to do their jobs, and how

such factors may impact their wellbeing and job performance we may understand additional levels of complexity about the RWG in relation to programmes and educators.

My interest in this theory stems from my own experiences as an educator, as I have experienced an imbalance between the work needing to be accomplished (job demands) and the lack of support provided to accomplish the work (job resources). At times this imbalance has impacted the quality of my teaching and I also surmise, the quality of student learning experiences.

I perform work in multiple areas, and my identity as an educator and a professional interpreter resonates with this study. My professional identity as a sign language interpreter has influenced my teaching practices, as I am able to draw upon personal experiences both as an interpreting student and a professional sign language interpreter. I have strong connections with various deaf communities across the globe and I am very aware of how interpreting services impact lives on a very personal level. Likewise, I value education and have taken time to learn practices and pedagogies to improve my teaching in hopes to improve student learning. A mentor of mine once said to me, "Don't become another interpreter educator who has no background in education. Learn how to teach so you can do it well". Taking these words to heart, I set out an educational journey to enhance my teaching, which has led to the development and implementation of this research study based on a teaching philosophy that embraces student-centred learning. This philosophy has been informed by humanistic education philosophies including constructivism and pragmatism (see: Aloni 2002; Vygotsky 1978; Dewey 1997), which values students as individual learners who construct and understand knowledge through educational life experiences.

While my many years of experience as an interpreting student, professional interpreter and interpreter educator have strengthened my skills to properly perform my duties as a sign language interpreter educator, I am in an infancy stage as an early career researcher. My master's degree is in Human Resources and Development with an emphasis on Adult Education and Training. During this programme of study, I developed a portfolio for teaching and learning, as this degree did not require me to complete a research thesis. Thus, this thesis is the first type of in-depth research I have conducted, and it has been both an enriching and challenging learning experience. In order to better understand and position myself within the research, identifying my ontological and epistemological beliefs in relation

to my research was critical and challenging as the concepts of positivism to post structuralism were unchartered territory (see: Chapter 3, section 3.1).

After attending an Introduction to Social Theory class at Heriot-Watt University, and engaging with literature on educational research, I began to see myself aligning with and thus adopting pragmatism as a research paradigm. A fundamental view of pragmatism is to identify solutions to problems; it is a practical philosophy that links theory to practice (Bacon 2012). Considering my strong identity as an educator and interpreter, I often reflect on ways to improve my practice in relation to my experiences. Therefore, I value conducting research which I perceive as practical and useful. Researchers who position themselves as pragmatists often use mixed methods when conducting research (Creswell 2013; Feilzer 2010). Therefore, combinations of quantitative and qualitative research methods were employed for this research study.

1.5 **Aim of Study**

The general aim of this study is to better understand sign language interpreter educators' experiences in relation to student learning outcomes, specifically the RWG. Considering how educators do have an important role in the student learning experience (Hattie 2003, Colbert et al. 2008), this research sheds light on working conditions specific to sign language interpreter educators and the perceived impact such conditions may have on sign language interpreter education programme graduates.

To accomplish this research, this study is guided by four specific research questions that build upon each other in order to explore sign language interpreter educators' perceptions of how their working environment may impact student learning outcomes-specifically the RWG. By applying JD-R theory (Bakker and Demerouti 2014) the study aims to understand sign language interpreter educators' perspectives of their work experiences including job demands, job resources, health and wellbeing. Thus, this study sets out to answer the following research questions:

1) What are the job demands influencing the work environment as perceived by sign language interpreter educators?
2) What job resources are considered essential by sign language interpreter educators and are they satisfied with such resources in managing their job demands?

3) In consideration of sign language interpreter educator wellbeing, are sign language interpreter educators engaged in their work or burned out by their work?

4) As perceived by sign language interpreter educators, how do job demands and job resources influence their job performance and overall programme operations in relation to the RWG faced by programme graduates?

1.6 Terms and Conventions

This section briefly describes key terminology and conventions arising throughout the thesis. For the purpose of this study, the term higher education is used to represent all forms of postsecondary interpreter education housed within an educational institution. Interpreter education comes in a variety of forms including vocational, undergraduate and postgraduate, depending upon the norms of its country. Paradeise and Thoenig (2013, p.21) describe higher education as a highly complex institution with several layers of governance and authority consisting of schools, departments, and programmes. Goodlad's (1995) description of higher education within the state of California (U.S), suggests higher education is a three-tiered educational experience where students begin their education at a vocational level and advance through the system to earn various degrees. Therefore, although not all nations may consider interpreter education as a form of higher education (e.g. vocational education, professional education, further education), the decision to refer to the educational opportunities of sign language interpreters as forms of higher education is supported. As Miller (1995) suggests, establishing a common nomenclature for differing terminology used describing similar concepts or processes avoids possible confusion.

Although terms used to describe supervisory roles is dependent upon the country (e.g. managers, general staff, administrators), the term 'administrator' is used throughout this thesis. Similarly, terms to describe educators themselves also vary by country (e.g. academics, faculty) and depending upon the type of contracts they hold, their titles again change (e.g. adjunct, casual, and contingent). Therefore, for the purposes of this thesis, educators are either referred to as educators or academics, and those without full-time/permanent positions are identified as non-permanent employees.

Female interpreters make up the majority of the profession of sign language interpreting (Bontempo and Napier 2007). Therefore, throughout this thesis, when referring to sign language interpreters and sign language interpreter educators, the pronoun "she" will be used

rather than s/he in recognition of the dominance of females in the field of sign language interpreting. Additionally, generally in Deaf Studies literature, using a capital 'D' is often used to describe the linguistic and cultural makeup of various Deaf communities (Woodward 1972). This study however, refers to deaf communities without capitalisation in attempts to include all deaf people who may use sign language interpreters, even if they do not identify themselves as a member of a cultural group.

In order to maximise clarity some terms that are used frequently have been abbreviated throughout this thesis. These frequently used abbreviations are introduced as a reminder at first use in each chapter and are presented in Table 1.1.

Abbreviations	Definition
AWS	Areas of Worklife Survey
JD-R	Job Demands-Resources (This refers to the theory and model)
JDRS-IE	Job Demands Resources Survey-Interpreter Educators
MBI-ES	Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey
RWG	Readiness to work gap
SLIE	A sign language interpreter educator (plural: SLIEs) who participated in this study. (when referring to sign language interpreter educators generally they will be referred to by the full title)
UWES-17	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-17

Table 1.1: Abbreviations

1.7 Thesis Structure

This thesis comprises eight chapters, which include a review of the literature, the research design, methods to conduct this study, presentation of quantitative and qualitative results and a discussion of those results in relation to literature drawing on education, interpreting and translation studies, organisational and psychological literature. The subsequent paragraphs of this chapter provide a brief description of Chapters 2-8.

Chapter 2 reviews relevant literature and provides a better understanding of the nature of higher education, interpreter education and the relation these elements have to the wider profession of interpreting. The profession of interpreting is described as a system made up of many parts, which cannot effectively operate in isolation (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005) and therefore requires exploration of interpreter education within the context of higher education to investigate possible system breakdowns. Furthermore, Job JD-R theory (Bakker and Demerouti 2007, 2014) is described in chapter 2 as the major analytical framework underpinning this research. This theory is used to understand employee experiences in terms

of job demands, job resources and can be used to predict wellbeing in terms of burnout and engagement, which can also impact employee job performance and the performance of organisations at large (Bakker and Demerouti 2014).

Chapter 3 outlines methodological beliefs and processes, which include my ontological and epistemological positions that support the use of multiple research techniques to conduct this study. A brief description of pragmatism, my teaching philosophy, and the ways in which I perceive that people acquire knowledge and truth are also presented to provide better insight on how I have situated myself within the research. Additionally, how I designed, conducted and analysed this study utilizing both quantitative and qualitative techniques, for each phase of the study is presented.

Chapters 4 through 6 present results of this study. Chapter 4 provides quantitative results from the Job Demands Resources Survey - Interpreter Educators (JDRS-IE) that was distributed to sign language interpreter educators (SLIEs). This chapter incorporates three statistical approaches used to analyse the responses of 66 sign SLIEs including descriptive statistics, correlation statistics, and regression models.

Chapter 5 includes the analyses of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-17 (UWES-17), Maslach-Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) and the Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS); these are psychological instruments used in understanding the wellbeing of individuals in relation to levels of work engagement and burnout (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Leiter and Maslach 2011; Maslach et al. 1996). These instruments were distributed to the 40 SLIEs, by way of convenience sampling, who opted to participate after they had completed the JDRS-IE; yet, the results yielded 28 of the 40 SLIEs to successfully complete this phase of the research.

Chapter 6 presents results from qualitative thematic analysis on the comments that were included by sign language interpreter educators within the JDRS-IE. It is through this analysis experiences in relation to job demands, job resources, SLIEs' wellbeing and student performance are understood beyond statistics.

A discussion of the results in relation to the literature occurs in Chapter 7. It is organised by addressing each of the four key research questions individually and interprets findings outlined in previous chapters, while providing a critical evaluation on the findings in relation to the literature.

Chapter 8 concludes this thesis. It addresses the limitations to this research, while providing recommendations for future research and the implications from this study for theory, practice and pedagogy.

Chapter 2-A Review of the Literature

The research questions presented in Chapter 1 (section 1.5) emanated from my experiences as a sign language interpreter educator, practising interpreter, the exploratory work from an initial pilot study and by engaging with education, psychology and interpreting studies literature. Thus, in order to preface this study, the literature presented in this chapter describes how sign language interpreter education is interconnected to the higher education system and to the professional interpreter system. If one leg of this triangle breaks; i.e., sign language education, higher education, or professional interpreting, the effectiveness of all three components can be impeded. Further, this chapter reveals the changing constructs of higher education as it has shifted from being a place where academics are autonomously engaged in research and teaching, to a place that adheres to a neoliberal philosophy, steering education toward marketisation. This neoliberal philosophy, also known as neoliberalism, is "a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets and free trade" (Harvey 2005, p. 2). Unpacking this concept further, Shepherd (2017) describes that a free market economy is perceived as facilitating economic prosperity, while also providing choice to consumers (Ranson and Stewart 1995). Farnham and Horton (1996) equate neoliberalism to being a greater service to the public than what can be offered by politics. Thus, those who value neoliberalism perceive markets to be the most effective avenue for money, goods, and services to circulate. Neoliberalism has impacted higher education on a multitude of levels as institutions are becoming increasingly marketised, consequently affecting educators and students alike. This chapter also attempts to provide a general understanding of the higher education system and situate sign language interpreter education within that system. This chapter concludes by describing Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory, the analytical framework underpinning this study. JD-R has been used to understand how job demands and job resources can predict employees' levels of work engagement and burnout. By exploring these topics, some of the challenging experiences sign language interpreter educators encounter can be captured, and builds the foundation to explore how such challenges may impact student achievement. These ideas are further discussed in Chapter 7, where the literature presented throughout this chapter is examined in relation to research findings presented in Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

2.1 Setting the Scene: The Education System

Education comes in many forms and holds a variety of purposes. The various types of formal learning across post-secondary education systems is delivered at universities, colleges, and other forms of vocational schools and each award different types of academic degrees or professional qualifications. Further education or continuing education is often considered distinct from higher education because further education colleges do not award formal degrees (Clark 1983). Globally, sign language interpreter education is offered to students by way of higher education and/or further education[3]; and this diversification of pathways seems to relate to the current semi-professional status of the sign language interpreting field (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2004; Bontempo 2013). Webb and Napier (2015) highlighted experiences of eight sign language interpreter educators, working within different forms of post-secondary education across Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom (U.K.) and the United States (U.S.). This study notes that regardless of the form and geographical location of the interpreter education, the educators themselves had similar experiences within their working environments. Therefore, as stated in Chapter 1 (section 1.6), the term higher education will be used throughout this thesis to represent all forms of sign language interpreter education housed within an educational institution.

Paradeise and Thoenig (2013, p. 21) describe higher education institutions as "highly complex institutions within several layers of governance and authority". These layers comprise of schools, departments, and programmes among other entities which connect and interact with each other - they make up the system of higher education. Clark (1983) depicts the higher education system in two ways: as an aggregate of formal entities (e.g. the higher education system in a specific country), and by describing the specific population engaged with post-secondary educational activities (e.g. controllers, organisers, workers, and consumers). Clark (1983) emphasises when using the term *system* to describe higher education institutions, boundaries around each part of the system[4] are not fixed; rather they are three-dimensional and interconnected across time and space. Further, he concludes by not seeing boundaries as fixed, it allows for us to accommodate the idiosyncrasies of

[3] Some countries still do not offer higher or further education opportunities for sign language interpreting, as the sign language may remain unrecognised (Napier 2009)

[4] These parts include what Paradeise and Thoenig (2013) described as layers-schools, departments, programmes.

academia (e.g. the ways in which they are funded, the relationships formed with the public and private sectors, and even the nature of their employees not always being full-time/permanent fixtures).

Just as higher education has been identified as a system, Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005) refer to the profession of sign language interpreting as a system functioning by way of interconnected interacting parts: interpreter practitioners, employers, consumers, policy makers and interpreter education programs. The representation of the profession as a system includes interpreter education programmes, but as Webb and Napier (2015) point out, programmes themselves are not only situated within the profession of sign language interpreting, but also sit within the larger context of the higher educational system. Due to the interconnectedness of higher education and the interpreting profession, each will likely influence the efficiency and effectiveness of each other. When considering these two interconnected systems it is important to note how there are various internal and external intersecting influences that shape the way in which the systems operate. Thus it is also important to bear in mind that while interpreter education is situated in higher education, higher education is also situated in various political and economic systems that shape its realisation and (perceived) functions. These ideas are highlighted in sections 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5.

This section set the scene to describe the higher education system and the system of the interpreting profession, thereby situating interpreter education within the context of the higher education system, which is heavily influenced by political and economic factors. The following sections describe the purpose of higher education and interpreter education and present reasons people believe higher education exists and what it aspires to be.

2.2 Purpose of Higher Education

There is not one central purpose of higher education and views are diverse and evolving. Worldviews can influence perceptions of the purposes of higher education. Psychologists view higher education as an opportunity where students can develop their personalities, some sociologists view it as the establishment for status attainment or denial, and economists regard it as the primary development of human capital (Clark 1983). In a more general sense, Clark (1983) describes higher education institutions as social structures for the advancement of knowledge and technique. Biesta (2009, p. 19) proposes higher education as the means to provide students with "knowledge, skills and understanding"; and Toutkoushian

(2005) suggests the reason to increase one's knowledge, skills and understanding through higher education is to successfully enter the workforce. Alternatively, Harvey (2000) believes that in addition to enhancing students' general knowledge, skills and abilities, higher education also shapes student attitudes and empowers them to become lifelong, critical and reflective learners. As higher education has evolved and begun to operate under philosophies of neoliberalism and marketisation (see: section 2.4.1), perspectives on the purpose of higher education have further expanded.

While many scholars agree higher education institutions were initially "established to promote independence of intellectual thought [and] to enable scholars to work outside the control of powerful vested interest groups" (Lynch 2006, p. 11), external stakeholders have become increasingly invested to higher education institutions. Freeman (1984, p. 16) describes stakeholders as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm's objectives". In the case of this study, the firm represents the higher educational institution. These stakeholders have begun to expand and challenge original inception of higher education. What may once have been generally agreed purpose(s) of higher education has evolved as relevant stakeholders develop their own beliefs as to what the *raison d'être* of higher education is and have begun to question the relevance of higher education in society (Olsen 2000 cited in Bjørkquist 2009). Table 2.1 lists the array of stakeholders connected to the higher educational system, and shows how Jongbloed et al. (2008) see higher education systems as interconnected and interdependent to these stakeholders. Constitutive groups, communities and stakeholders can be further specified within the particular geographical location of the higher education institution, as well as those relevant to schools, programmes, departments.

Stakeholder Category	**Constitutive Groups, Communities, Stakeholders, etc.**
Governing Entities	Constitutive groups, communities, stakeholders, clients, etc
Administration	President (vice-chancellor) senior administrators
Employees	Faculty, administrative staff, support staff
Clienteles	Students, parents, spouses, tuition reimbursement providers, service partners, employers, field permanent sites
Suppliers	Secondary education providers, alumni, other colleges and universities, food purveyors, insurance companies, utilities, contracted services
Competitors	*Direct:* private and public providers of post-secondary education *Potential:* distance providers, new ventures *Substitutes:* employer-sponsored training programmes
Donors	Individuals including trustees, friends, parents, alumni, employees,

Stakeholder Category	Constitutive Groups, Communities, Stakeholders, etc.
	industry, research councils, foundations
Communities	Neighbours, school systems, social services, chambers of commerce, special interest group
Government	Ministry of Education, buffer organisations, state and federal financial aid
Regulators	Agencies, research councils, federal research support, tax authorities, social security, patent office
Non-governmental regulators	Foundations, institutional and programmatic accrediting bodies, professional associations, church sponsors
Financial Intermediaries	Banks, fund managers, analysis

Table 2.1: List of stakeholders, Jongbloed et al. (2008) adapted from Burrows (1999)

One major stakeholder group are the academic employees who work across a range of disciplines and teach in professional programmes such as accountancy, finance, dentistry, engineering, law and medicine. They are also often members of diverse and specialised occupations, holding professional positions in conjunction to their academic roles (Austin and Gamson 1983; Conway 1998). Consequently, these educators may aim to uphold academic values (Conway 1998), as well as inculcate the values from their professional domain within the educational environment (Haigh and Johnson 2007). Thus for academic staff, the purpose of higher education may specifically relate to the programme they teach in and their perceived purpose of higher education being transmission and preservation of knowledge (Conway 1998) in order to foster the development of the next generation of professionals within their domain (Lewis 1998; Elfrink and Lutz 1991).

Some students may understand higher education as a route to the professional domain, and take time to carefully identify a programme that aligns with their future career interests (Beggs et al. 2008; Tomlinson 2008). This view of education appears to have emerged from the marketisation of higher education institutions as they continue to align themselves more and more with the free market, creating competition promoting economic growth (Slaughter and Rhoades 2004) and recruit students based on their career interests (Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka 2006). Further, Rhode (2000) describes how students often want to receive a degree, and invest little effort to obtain it, suggesting some students may see higher education as a mere stepping stone and do not appreciate the value it offers. In the Higher Education University Lifestyle Survey by Sodexo (2016) 71% of students who took part in the survey identified they opted to attend university to improve their job opportunities. In the same vein, 45% attended to obtain a qualification and 51% to specialise in a subject area. The

report further showed students also attend for personal development, but this view is held to a lesser extent. 43% value the opportunity to live independently, 39% want to meet new people, whilst 33% to live a different way of life.

Institutional administrators, working under the confines of neoliberal education policies, may believe the purpose of higher educational institutions is to serve as enterprises that commercialise products, ideas, and generate income (Lynch 2006; Atlbach et al. 2009). While external stakeholders may believe the purpose of higher education is to satisfy their organisational needs (e.g. when stakeholders donate funding, donation recipients should use funding as prescribed by the stakeholder group) (Jongbloed et al. 2008). For those organisations planning to hire recent graduates, they may expect the purpose of higher education to be ensuring graduates are employable by demonstrating expected domain specific knowledge and technical skills (Andrews and Higson 2008).

Stakeholders of higher education influence both external functions[5] and the internal services[6] they provide. Scholars have also described the economic expectations on placed on higher education institutions. These expectations have stressed the need for higher education institutions to further develop the economy by preparing individuals with relevant knowledge and skills relevant to the needs of society, while also emphasising research and knowledge creation. All of these factors have been perceived to be contributors to a successful global economy (Castells 1996; Etzkowitz and Leydesdorf 1997 and Enders and Fulton 2002).

Additionally scholars have described societal expectations placed on higher education institutions (Shavit and Blossfeld 1993). They suggest society has increasingly idealised higher education as the way for individuals to have opportunity and mobility, and consequently society has pushed for higher education institutions to be accessible to all social classes, ethnic groups and geographical regions (Shavit and Blossfeld 1993). On a global scale one purpose of higher education is to create a sense of uniformity, where relevant stakeholders understand the level of skills and abilities that graduates possess, regardless of the higher education institution they come from (e.g. it is expected that graduates holding undergraduate degrees should be able to demonstrate specific levels of competences that are

[5] Jongbloed and Enders (2008) describe the external functions of higher education in terms of the economic and social functions carried out by higher education institutions.

[6] Jongbloed and Enders (2008) describe the services higher education institutions provide as teaching, research and knowledge transfer.

different from than those holding postgraduate degrees). When higher education institutions work closer together to create greater accountability and clearer standards of quality, staff and students have greater workforce flexiablisation and thus their employability is further facilitated. One leading example is through the establishment of the European Higher Education Area and the Bologna Process, an agreement among European counties to harmonise the various higher education systems to foreground the unity of the European higher education system to position it as a competitive actor on global education markets. The Bologna Process is made up of level descriptors based on competencies for knowledge understanding and the application of knowledge and understanding as well as making judgements, communication and lifelong learning. From the agreement, the overarching Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area was established in order to provide a common understanding of programme specific competencies and qualifications, which are applicable in national contexts. Ultimately these efforts are an example of a super national agreement being put in place to create a shared understanding of the purpose of the European higher education system.

These ideas demonstrate how higher education is essential for global societal and economic successes, and due to the range of stakeholders within higher education, one can surmise that everyone has an opinion as to what higher education should provide and what they believe its reason for existence is. Additionally, within the higher education system, there are many different disciplines in operation. Each of these disciplines will also have stakeholders unaccounted for in Jongbloed et al. (2008) and also have a more specific view as to their purpose within higher education (e.g. in the case of sign language interpreter education deaf communities, practicing interpreters and public and private authorities who hire interpreting services are considered stakeholders). Therefore, the following section examines perceived purposes of interpreter education.

2.2.1 Purpose of Interpreter Education

As briefly described in Chapter 1 (section 1.2), sign language interpreter education is now an established academic discipline, yet its roots are deeply embedded in the province of deaf communities (Singleton and Tittle 2000; Cokely 2005; Stone 2010). The process of academisation has shifted the responsibility to prepare interpreters to practice from the control of deaf communities, who previously conducted short ad hoc interpreter training courses, to the control of higher education institutions, offering more formalised education

opportunities (Napier 2009). Therefore, the role of gatekeeper, described by scholars in interpreter education (Cokely 2005; Hunt and Nicodemus 2014), may influence related stakeholders' beliefs as to what the purpose of interpreter education is, even if different from the general more neoliberal perceptions of the purpose of higher education. Runcieman (2016) finds in his study on spoken language interpreter education that institutional goals and student perceptions of what should be achieved after completion of an undergraduate degree are different. For example, students believe they should be a professional interpreter upon graduation, but the institution does not see graduates as professional interpreters, rather they see them as only being able to mediate communication but not yet in the professional realm. However, the RWG dialogue within the field of sign language interpreters indicates the raison d'être of sign language interpreter education is to in fact have work ready graduates, regardless if these expectations can be feasibly realised.

Clark (1983) explains *knowledge materials* as what educators transfer to their students. Based on what path students take within higher education, these knowledge materials are adaptable (e.g. occupational knowledge, historical knowledge, processes and concept knowledge), and the educator can facilitate how such knowledge materials are learned through the use of innovative student-centred teaching paradigms (see: section 2.5.4). In terms of occupational knowledge, if a person has entered higher education to become a doctor, or in the field of sign language interpreting, the higher education institution, specifically the educator, would then have the responsibility to instil occupational specific knowledge and skills so students gain competencies to successfully make the transition to the workplace upon graduation.

The relationship between higher education and the workforce is not unique to sign language interpreter education. Sullivan, in Lagemann and Lewis (2015) support the notion that colleges and universities should consider public benefit as essential outcomes for graduates, thereby stressing the importance of balancing the need to teach technical abilities with fostering well-developed and ethically responsible persons who will serve various communities upon their graduation. With this in mind, Sullivan's beliefs align with two key concepts anecdotally discussed in interpreter education. The first being his discussion of technical skills which relates to the desire for graduates of interpreter educations to be ready to work, and second, the fostering of ethically responsible professions which relates to

graduates being *safe to practice*[7] as interpreters. However, interpreter education and higher education at large have been criticised for not being able to adequately equip students with appropriate skill sets, which may be linked to the slow process of professionalisation of the interpreting profession described in Chapter 1. However, it is important to generally contextualise the links between employability and higher education and these are presented in section 2.3.

2.3 Employability and Higher Education

Today many people view the purpose of higher education as directly related to employability. As described in section 2.2, this perspective represents one of many views on the purpose of higher education. Moreover the perception of the relationship between higher education and employability has evolved over time, particularly due to the spread of neoliberalism and marketisation. As higher education institutions have been forced to situate themselves in the free market, they have consequently needed to develop partnerships with industry (further described in section 2.4.4) and focus on enhancing graduates' abilities to best align with the requirements of dynamic employment (Hill 2016). Such efforts are believed to strengthen the position of the higher education institutions within the global economy and to fortify their relationships with industry. To better understand the links between employability and higher education, what employability is and what it means to be perceived as employable must first be described.

Little (2001) suggests employability is a multi-dimensional concept. She distinguishes between factors relevant to the preparation for employment and factors relevant to the obtainment of employment. Brennan et al. (1996) explain that preparation factors include the alignment between degree programme and job type, as well as graduates' perceptions of course relevance and knowledge and/or skill deficiencies. Job obtainment factors consist of the transition time from graduation to employment, the range of job types entered, job level (seniority), and work specific experiences such as job demands and earnings. Therefore, relevant factors will vary, dependent upon the type of employment one seeks. Hillage et al. (1998) describe employability as having the capability to obtain initial employment, maintain employment and obtain new employment if required; a synergistic combination of personal

[7] Being safe to practice does not necessarily entail professionally ready to work (e.g. students have professionalism, ethics, and critical thinking skills but are not necessarily able to work independently).

qualities, skills of various kinds, and subject understanding (Knight and Yorke 2002). Therefore, many people assume being employable, maintaining employment, and obtaining employment when needed are directly related to one's level of education. Essentially, specific qualities and skills are considered to be provided by and obtained through educational means (Watty 2006).

The direct link between higher education and employment is discussed throughout the literature in a range of fields including business, higher education, healthcare (Atkins 1999; Watty 2006; Bak and Jordan 2017; Beauvais et. al. 2017). Watty (2006) conducted a survey to explore accounting educators' perceptions of the purpose of higher education. Results from this survey found the majority of respondents (84%) believe the top promoted purpose of higher education was to graduate work-ready individuals. Similarly, Atkins (1999) indicates how upon graduation, graduates should be ready to work hard and find immediate employment success. Skilbeck and Connell (1996) expect higher education institutions to provide students with an extensive range of skills and competencies in order for them to gain entry into the workforce. Hence, in addition to specific knowledge materials, such as occupational knowledge as suggested by Clark (1983), higher education institutions are expected to cultivate lifelong autonomous learners by developing their critical thinking and reasoning skills (Biesta 2009; Watty 2006; Harvey 2000). By incorporating the necessary practical skills and competencies along with higher-level learning and thinking skills, higher education contributes to students' preparation and obtainment of a professional role upon graduation.

Under the constructs of total quality management (described in section 2.4), higher education institutions use graduate employability rates as an indication of institutional excellence (Harvey 2001). This indicates higher education institutions themselves promote links between education and the workforce. How educational institutions indicate their level of employability may relate to how higher education institutions first define employability. Harvey (2001) describes three possible preferred definitions and methods to measure institutional effectiveness. First, he postulates if the preferred definition of employability is the ability to obtain employment, the numbers of graduates who obtain employment might demonstrate institutional effectiveness. If the higher educational institution sees employability as the attributes of graduates, then institutional effectiveness might be indicated through an audit of the developmental opportunities offered at the institution.

Finally, Harvey suggests if the preferred definition of employability relates to graduate satisfaction with their employment, then institutional effectiveness might be indicated by a survey of graduates exploring levels of satisfaction with their programme of study and to what extent it prepared them for the workforce, highlighting the marketisation of the academy. Regardless of how employability is indicated at a higher educational institution, implications of employability ratings will likely have an impact on funding of the institution as well as learning and teaching (Harvey 2001). Employability appears to be an essential component to higher education and the wider workforce, and while institutions may consider themselves effective if their graduates obtain jobs or their graduates respond positively to a satisfaction survey, many institutions have been criticised by employers about the employability of their graduates, indicating a gap between employers' expectations and the realities of the graduates they employ (Cheong et al. 2016).

Within the field of sign language interpreting, the increased demand for more qualified practicing interpreters has become a global phenomenon. As described in chapter 1 (section 1.2), demands for sign language interpreters have steadily increased across a number of countries due to the adoption of legislative policies requiring accessibility provisions to be made, which includes access to communication by sign language interpreters for deaf and hard of hearing people. Additionally, advances in video technology have further increased the need for qualified sign language interpreters. Napier et al. (2014, 2017) point out that the explosion of video relay and video remote interpreting services, particularly in the U.S. and across Europe, has heightened the demand for interpreters; these developments have been reported to affect the availability of sign language interpreters in public service and community settings (Dion 2005; Taylor 2009). In response, stakeholders of the sign language interpreting profession have increasingly turned turned to higher education institutions, demanding they be the producers of more qualified interpreters, better able to meet industry demands. One such example of how the Video Relay Service (VRS) industry in the U.S. turned to interpreter education as a means to build up the number and quality of sign language interpreters in the workforce can be seen in the establishment of the VRS interpreting institute in Salt Lake City, Utah. This institute, funded by Sorenson Video Relay Service, offers a range of programmes designed to support sign language interpreter educators, graduates and students in their professional journeys. One such programme, which is currently on hold for further development, is the school to work programme (Ball 2017). While the school to work programme was operating, it took in graduates from sign

language interpreter education programmes for 14 weeks of further training which offered formal mentorships, additional classroom instruction, work experience through professional internships and the opportunity to live with deaf host families, all of which would support their transition into the workforce (Robinson 2014).

Knowing employability is seen as a major purpose for higher education, the notion that many stakeholders perceive higher education institutions as not fulfilling this purpose should be examined. Therefore, section 2.3.1 examines the criticisms higher education has faced when not graduating job ready individuals prepared to immediately enter the workforce.

2.3.1 Higher Education and Unpreparedness

Higher education institutions around the world have been widely criticised for producing graduates who are not prepared to successfully enter the workforce (Mukherjee 1995; Stensaasen 1995; Schargel 1996; Anand 2011; Cheong et al. 2016). Schargel (1996) argues that the educational system is failing to produce graduates capable of reading, writing, having adequate math skills, and thinking. Work attendance, timeliness and working cooperatively also appear to be challenges for some graduates. Likewise, De La Harpe et al. (2000) describe the global concern of graduates entering the workforce without appropriate professional skills or lifelong learning skills. This failure to produce competent work-ready graduates then elicits challenges for industries to produce products and services (Schargel 1996). Considering higher education and employability have also been linked to human capital,[8] theories of innovation, economic performance, and social capital, when graduates leave their respective higher educational institutions, and are inadequately prepared to contribute to a wider society, the implications on the growth and strength of society and the sustainability of the global economy is threatened (Putnam 2000; Becker 1975).

Peddle (2000) describes how businesses have noted skill deficiencies among new hires who are recent graduates. Peddle explains how these deficiencies have adversely affected profits and performances for these businesses which has forced them to provide additional training opportunities to their employees to cover gaps. An example in Peddle (2000) described the Centre for Government Studies accessing training needs in Northern Illinois, a Midwestern

[8] Human Capital Theory (Becker 1975) is the idea that the skills, knowledge, and experiences possessed by an individual can increase productivity of a population therefore improving its economy (Olaniyan and Okemakinde 2008, p. 479)

state in the US. Interviews were conducted with CEOs, human resources staff, and other administrators from a variety of industries, and through analysis of interview data, common workplace skill deficiencies were identified, with the most common deficiency being technical skills. Additionally, in a survey exploring graduate skills by People Management (1997 as cited in Cameron 2000) it was identified that 91% of respondents perceive oral communication as the most important 'soft' skill for graduates to have. However, only 32% of the respondents believed graduates competently demonstrated soft skills and did exhibit effective communication skills. Jackson (2009) studied industry-relevant competences and skills gaps within Australia, the U.K. and the U.S. She cited the Confederation of British Industry Survey (2007), expressing the belief that employers are more concerned about the quality of graduates than the quantity of them, a belief that may be in conflict with how higher education institutions indicate their own effectiveness (see: section 2.4.5). Peddle (2000) also suggested that skill deficiencies amongst graduates impact the successful transition into the workforce, and this is expected to widen over time, further threatening employability as a fundamental purpose of higher education.

2.3.2 Interpreter Education and Unpreparedness

Sign language interpreter education has become increasingly important in the education and training of sign language interpreters. While there are currently discrepancies across national contexts as to the role of sign language interpreter education, formal education is becoming more valued in those countries that are further in the process of professionalisation, such as the U.S., Canada, and increasingly in the U.K. An illustrative measure, for example, was taken by the Registry of Interpreters of the Deaf (RID) in the U.S. In the early 2000s, RID implemented educational requirements designed to gradually increase over time, which stipulated that those wanting to sit for professional certification must hold formal degrees. While RID has not mandated degrees be specifically in the field of sign language interpreting, it was a first step towards the further professionalisation of the field and contributed to an increased demand for formalised undergraduate interpreter education programmes. Higher education institutions providing sign language interpreter education programmes in the U.K., meanwhile have been mapped to occupational standards as required by the National Registers of Communication Professionals Working with Deaf and Deafblind People (NRCPD). While higher education is not the only route to working as a sign language interpreter in the U.S. or the U.K., such steps by professional organisations

demonstrate attempts being made to raise the standards of the profession by way of interpreter education.

As briefly described in Chapter 1 (section 1.2), however, many graduates leaving sign language interpreter education programmes have generally lacked skill sets to effectively enter the workforce. Consumers of sign language interpreting services, as well as sign language interpreter educators, and graduates themselves have all expressed concerns about the knowledge and skill deficiencies of sign language interpreters upon graduation from sign language interpreter education programmes (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005). Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005) describe the perspectives key stakeholders have on graduates and the RWG within the U.S. They state that consumers of interpreting services, particularly deaf communities, feel graduates do not exhibit attitudinal qualities that align with community norms, which they believe to aid in the communication process. Deaf communities have expressed a sense of powerlessness due to graduate attitudes of entitlement, rather than empathy, compassion, open-mindedness, interest in humanity and the goal to improve society. Although the deaf people who participated in this study reported to acknowledge not all of their proposed attributes can be taught within interpreter education, they emphasised the importance of teaching power dynamics within the communication process, as it is essential graduates recognise how interpreter attitudes can impact the communicative interaction (e.g. relating to power and privilege). Conversations describing the importance of qualified interpreters to deaf people's daily lives and the difficulties they experience when graduates do not hold desired competencies are important to note, especially when considering that while deaf people are key stakeholders to interpreter education, interpreter education programmes also serve as key stakeholders to deaf communities (Wagner 2014).

Employers have also recounted concerns they have on the readiness of sign language interpreter graduates. Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005) report most employers of sign language interpreters (e.g. agencies, schools, healthcare providers etc.) are chiefly concerned with the technical competencies graduates lack. Some employers even appear disgruntled when they need to provide training to enhance foundational skills of new interpreters, as they are businesses that provide interpreting services when needed and are not trainers of interpreters. On the contrary, some employers of new graduates are keen on providing support to students and graduates of interpreter education programmes, yet many identified

they do not have the time or the experience to effectively support the novice interpreters and believe supervision should come from an educator or other trained interpreters.[9]

In addition to stakeholder groups such as members from deaf communities and employers of sign language interpreters, Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005) share experiences of graduates from sign language interpreter education programmes. A dominant theme amongst these graduates is around programme structure and curriculum. One graduate described the hidden curriculum that requires students to invest their time and money beyond the required coursework to formally associate with their local deaf community. Students with jobs families or other obligations reported difficulties in finding ways to supplement their language development. They explained if they did not have the time or resources to engage with deaf people, beyond the course work, they were unable to meet the expected skill level. However, the content, structure and duration of the programmes as they stood were not designed to provide them with all of the needed cultural and linguistic competencies to be fit to practice.

Interpreter practitioners and interpreter educators also shared their perspectives on entry-to-practice competencies, which they view as a necessary consideration when discussing graduate readiness. However, as reported by Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005) these interpreter practitioners and educators feel that many entry-to-practice competencies remain ambiguous due to the current professional status of the interpreting profession (as described in Chapter 1, section 1.2). Considering many interpreter educators themselves are not always at the same academic levels of educators across other disciplines (Monikowski 2013), or have taken formal interpreter training themselves (Grbić 2009; Hein 2009), may suggest the educators themselves are unsure how to identify whether or not students have achieved suggested entry-to-practice competences. Interpreter practitioners also suggest the various educational pathways to become a professional sign language interpreter will continue to affect graduates ability to competently practice upon graduation, further indicating they deem that the current structures of interpreter education impact students' readiness to work. For example, one interpreter educator quoted in Witter-Merithew and Johnson's (2005) study expressed that there is not enough time for students to master language skills prior to learning how to interpret, suggesting students rush through the process of language development and

[9] Because interpreters are hired in a range of domains, many employers of sign language interpreters are not interpreters themselves.

theoretical foundations. Another educator expressed the lack of structured and supervised transition from the classroom into the real world and suggested that without a transitional plan, students will remain unsuccessful in their leap from classroom to practice. However, in consideration of the current state of the profession itself, these transition plans may be difficult to establish.

Firstly, Ott (2012) found that horizontal violence occurs amongst sign language interpreter practitioners in the United States, which can be described as when a group "strikes out on their own comrades for the pettiest reasons" (Freire 2000, p. 62). Although Ott's research cannot be generalised to all sign language interpreters, it has fuelled conversations amongst many interpreters who share similar experiences to those reported in Ott's work (see comments connected to a blog post by Block 2015). A major conclusion made by Ott (2012, p. 92) is that if horizontal violence is occurring, "it has serious consequences for individuals, organisations, and the field as a whole."

Secondly, The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) recommend language learners need 700-800 guided learning hours to obtain effective operational linguistic proficiency (C1-a level below mastery) (Council of Europe). The CEFR framework has also been adapted by Leeson et al. (2016) specifically for the use of teaching sign language within deaf studies and sign language interpreting programmes. If students are in language classes a minimum of 3 hours per week across two semesters equating 30 weeks for four years, they are only getting 360 hours of guided language instruction, which is well below the recommended amount of time. This calculation aligns with Nunan (1988), who claims the average student is only receiving between 100-300 formal hours of instruction. These hours primarily focus on language development and therefore do not account for the time required to fully develop interpreting skills. Thus, packing the curriculum (a concept described in section 2.4.3) hinders student learning, as students do not have enough time to learn the needed knowledge, skills, and abilities to enter professional practice.

Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005) provided insight into the feelings and experiences that key stakeholders have faced in regards to the underprepared workforce comprised of graduates from sign language interpreter education programmes. Since this book is through the lens of American interpreter educators, it is important to note that similar observations have also been reported globally. Bontempo and Napier (2007) explored the perceptions of sign language interpreter practitioners in Australia, and they too noted the RWG, previously

described by Anderson and Stauffer (1990), Dean and Pollard (2001) and Witter-Merithew et al. (2004). Similarly, Leeson and Lynch (2009) described how the duration of interpreter education in Ireland was too short and does not allow for interpreting students to adequately develop the full range of linguistic and interpreting competencies they will need in professional practice upon graduation. Crasborn and Bloem (2009) depict how sign language interpreting students in the Netherlands are not only learning a new language and acquiring interpreting skills in just four years, they are also faced with learning the range of linguistic variation in sign language across the Netherlands. Thus, Crasborn and Bloem (2009) are not surprised when graduates struggle with interpreting from the learned sign language (comprising of many regional, gender and age linguistic variations) to spoken language. Moreover, Erlenkamp et al. (2011) describe the difficulties of teaching multiple communication modalities (e.g. tactile signing, haptic signals, sign-supported Norwegian, caption interpreting etc.) to students within a three-year undergraduate programme in Norway. Additionally they perceive that while their students can become reflective and critical thinkers over the course of the three-year programme, they stress how graduates must further develop their practical skills upon graduation. While examples such as these demonstrate the RWG is not incumbent to one region, they also show competencies of graduates is not merely a general concern of higher education at large, but also have been reported as a specific concern to sign language interpreter education.

In order to understand some of the issues faced in interpreter education, it is important to understand factors that impact the overall functionality of higher education institutions. Therefore section 2.4 reviews literature on factors that influence the functionality of higher education, including: new managerialism, conflicting paradigms between academics and administrators, institutional funding, industry partnerships, and the use of performance indicators.

2.4 Factors Influencing the Functionality of Higher Education

Tierney (1988, p. 3) states higher education institutions are "influenced by powerful external factors such as demographic, economic, and political conditions, yet they are also shaped by strong forces that emanate from within". How external and internal factors influence the higher education system is important to understand, because the interaction between such factors and different parts of the system can influence how effectively the system operates. Clark (1983) explains when demands from one part of the system (internal or external) arise

and are set in motion; they become the driving forces of the system, resulting into either system advancement or interruption. Meek (2010) exemplifies this by describing how when managers, administrators and students interact with each other and with formal and informal authority (e.g. key decision makers such as government), their actions will influence the direction and functionality of the higher educational institution at large, again demonstrating how interactions between all parts of the system are interconnected and interdependent (Jongbloed et al. 2008). By remembering the interrelatedness of the various parts of the higher education system, we are better able to examine how educators perceive the external and internal demands influencing the overall functionality of higher education institutions.

An example of how higher education is situated within a wider political and economic system is the impact of government positioning on education policy and practice. Marginson discusses in a series of papers (Marginson 2004, 2006; Marginson & Considine 2000; Marginson & Rhoades 2002) how governments, on a global scale, are following a similar model of higher education. His arguments concerning the characteristics of this model can be axed along four main lines (Warren 2017). As part of an economic strategy used to maximise the stock of human capital and secure a competitive advantage in the global economy, governments are actively encouraging members of society to participate in higher education activities. Second, governments are reducing funding streams previously provided directly to higher education institutions in order to encourage a diversification of income streams. Third, governments are increasingly steering research priorities to meet economic needs; and fourth, they are introducing quasi-market conditions into competition for research funding, student income, and financial diversification through the recruitment of international students. This model of higher education has forced institutions to adopt capitalistic measures for survival; consequently, they are thereby becoming increasingly competitive in their efforts to recruit more students and attain more funding.

The current state of education has prompted the questioning of its value and overall sustainability. Spicer (2017) reports on a U. S. study that suggests 46% of students in higher education are not developing cognitively during their years of study, and in some cases are displaying signs of cognitive regression. Furthermore, in addition to not necessarily furthering the cognitive development of students as critical thinkers, higher education appears to be financially unsustainable. The number of individuals employed in administrative managerial roles continues to grow and now far outweighs the number of

those serving in educational teaching roles; for example, in another study reported in Spicer (2017) shows administrators in the U.S. had increased by 221% while the number of staff in teaching positions only increased by 10%. Spicer then argues that when higher education systems choose to invest in administration, they are being diverted from their core tasks, which should be to educate, undertake research and contribute to society, and are instead becoming all too focused on policy development, box ticking exercises and the race to the top of university ranking tables. In order for students to succeed or even merely advance within the higher education system however, they are dependent upon programmes, departments, teachers, administrators, and overarching structures and policies. Thus, when the focus is on investing in administration rather than in teaching and resources that can support the teaching and learning processes, students will suffer the consequences of such decisions. Similarly, Browne (2010) suggests that higher educational institutions are lowering teaching and learning standards when there is not proper and balanced investment in schools departments and programmes.

One of the goals of this research is to understand how the experiences of sign language interpreter educators may contribute to student learning outcomes, specifically the RWG. Therefore, section 2.4.1 explores a variety of factors that contextualise the higher educational institution including the concepts of *new managerialism* and *total quality control* and their implications on the higher education system.

2.4.1 New Managerialism

As a concept, *Managerialism* was initially used to discuss issues of organisational control, accountability and measurements of output and productivity in the public sector (Clarke and Newman 1997; Deem 1998). While managerialism has traditionally referred to the public sector, it is a phenomenon that has been said to have extended far beyond this sphere and to have permeated into every aspect of humans' economic, social, cultural and political lives (Klikauer 2015).

Although scholars have attempted to define managerialism, Klikauer (2015) argues that it remains under-theorised, as it lacks an agreed upon definition (Shepard 2017), and researchers have assigned an array of meanings to the concept (Teelken 2012). Deem (1998) refers to managerialism as the adoption of private sector practices aiming to monitor and measure efficiency, effectiveness and excellence. Pollitt and Bouckaert (2000), meanwhile, root managerialism in approaches to managerial, structural and policy reform. Lawler and

Hearn (1995) relate managerialism to the interests of management, particularly the role of individual managers and how they manage in order to uphold their interests. Over the last quarter of a century, the term *new managerialism* has been applied to describe how higher education institutions have adopted aspects of managerialism. Characteristics of 'new managerialism' in higher education institutions are very similar to those identified in discussion of managerialism as the concept depicts organisations that emphasise the pre-eminence of management above all other activities, proactively monitor employee performance while also encouraging self-monitoring, stress the attainment of established targets and develop ways to measure and audit the quality of service delivery (Le Grande and Bartlett 1993). Such characteristics represent the values of the business sector in which efficiency and effectiveness are actively pursued (Farrell & Morris 2003). Pointing to the distinction between managerialism and new managerialism, Lynch (2014 p. 1) notes that:

> … what makes new managerialism 'new' is the deployment of principles related to managerialism in both public sector bodies (Lynch et al. 2012), and increasingly, in non-governmental organisations (McCrea, 2014).

Focusing on new, or neoliberal (Deem et al. 2007), managerialism in the academic sphere, Gordon and Whitechurch (2009) characterise this combination of neoliberalism and managerialism in terms of: 1) the increased separation of academic work and management activities; 2) a greater control and regulation of academic work by managers; 3) a perceived shift in authority from academics to managers, and the consequent weakening of the professional status of academics; 4) an ethos of enterprise prioritising income generation; 5) government support for policies focusing on higher education institutions aligning with certain social and economic needs (i.e. growth industries, skill shortages); and 6) higher education institutions' increased orientation towards the market orientation and competition for resources.

Deem (1998) describes how higher educational institutions have drawn on neoliberal philosophies in responding to operational shifts influenced by new managerialism approaches to higher education. Such shifts are associated with new forms of imposed external accountability, including the widespread use of performance indicators and league tables, target-setting, benchmarking and performance management (Kirkpatrick & Lucio 1995; Power 1997). Carr et al. (2006) argue that new managerialism can easily identifiable in higher education institutions by management styles that align with a market orientation,

aiming to secure nongovernment funds, that is highly concerned with efficiency and economy. With this spread of new managerialism educational institutions are now seen as businesses, with chief executives and managers, who work towards achieving organisational profit, aim to provide more for less, and monitor efficiency and effectiveness by measuring outcomes and staff performance.

One study that contextualises new managerialism in higher education was conducted by Deem and Behony (2005) (for studies on new managerialism in higher education in other contexts, see O'Brien 2017; Lee 2017; Dowling-Hetherington 2016; Peters 2013; Anderson 2008; Lynch 2006; Meek and Larson 2003). Deem and Behony's (2005) multi-phase study examined the extent to which new managerialism has infiltrated management practices and structures across higher education institutions in the U.K. Across three phases of the research they conducted focus groups with academics and administrators, semi structured interviews with manager-academics and senior administrators across 16 higher education institutions[10], and case studies of the cultures and management of four higher education institutions. In order to analyse and interpret the data, Deem and Behony used four models of new managerialism adopted from previous research (Ferlie et al. 1996), including: 1) the efficiency model (the notion of doing more with less); 2) the downsizing and decentralising model; 3) the learning organisation model (emphasising cultural change, team-work, empowering employees and strategy); and 4) the value-basis for public services model (to increase dialogue between service users and service providers). These authors presented findings that corresponded to the first three models and reported that respondents across all phases of the study did not mention the value-basis model. Based on their analysis of the data over the three phases, Deem and Behony (2005) reported that new managerialism in the U.K. is most evident due to: 1) changes in funding, 2) academic work 3) workload (more students, less resources per student and pressure to teach and research to a high standard); 4) the prioritisation of team work in teaching and research, partly due to external audits; 5) further decentralisation of decision making (further supported by Teelken and Deem 2013); and 6) increases in the internal and external surveillance of performance and a heightened

[10] The higher education institutions in this study included a range of pre-1992 universities and a number of post-1992 universities. Post-1992 universities are higher education institutions with a charter to award degrees, that were formerly polytechnics under the control of local governments but became independent incorporated institutions in 1989 and universities in 1992 (Pratt, 1997).

demand for managers to oversee institutional operations. At the time of Deem and Behony's study, there was no evidence of university downsizing, but there was some evidence of decentralisation which included devolved department budgets, and a lack of autonomy in hiring new staff without navigating the system for committee approval. Since this study, however, more recent reports suggest that the political and economic uncertainty generated by the June 2016 vote in the U.K for Great Britain to leave the European Union has contributed to decisions to reduce staff (Pidd 2017; Reisz 2017). Further, as the next section details the practices and structures of neoliberalism in higher education are increasingly influencing the decisions of educational administrators.

2.4.2 Administration and Management

Similar to other organisations, higher educational institutions are supported by a form of organisational structure and leadership (Musselin 2005; Simkins 2005). Although previously known as academic leaders, under new managerialism those in leadership positions are considered as part of middle and upper management. As described in Chapter 1 (section 1.6), for purposes of consistency, *administration* is used to describe those in supervisory roles (e.g. chairs, directors, deans, and heads of departments' schools, principals or presidents – this terminology varies based on the educational system in place and country). The educational administration has always been an essential part of how higher educational institutions function, and since the 1980's "management' and the 'market' have become the landscape of higher education (Miller 1995), and thus have become the guiding force of administration decision-making. Deem (1998) described how new managerialism has influenced the organisational culture specifically of the higher education administration or management. Where academics were once viewed as autonomous, now administrators employ more overt management styles, which have threatened the freedoms academics have historically valued, such as the freedom to teach without external control in their areas of expertise (Altbach 2001).

Academics increasingly report administrators do not hold the same values as they previously had (Heyliger 2014). Winter (2009) described how academics traditionally value and identify with academic freedom, collegial governance and institutional freedom; while administrators adhere to managerial values of economic rationality, minimisation of cost, and priority of profit (Albert and Whetten 1985). This is important to note because Leiter and Harvie (1997) have identified that conflicts in values directly relate to employee burnout.

Randle and Brady (1997) outline paradigms of academics and their administration to demonstrate that the goals and values, key assumptions, and management ethos are in direct conflict. Table 2.2 is a table originally provided in Randle and Brady (1997, p. 232). Examples of paradigm conflicts depicted in the table demonstrate that while academics value student learning and teaching, administrators value students entering and exiting the system, which coincides with income generation. Further, academics assume resources should be provided based on need (aligning with values of teaching and learning), whereas administrators assume resources should be distributed based on market demand and value for money; further academics support professional autonomy and trust, and administrators are guided by quality assurance mechanisms like performance indicators and surveillance. While from over 20 years ago, a report from The Pew Higher Education Research Group (1996), described the disconnection and division among educators and their administrators at higher education institutions of all types. The report claims the division has weakened their ability to work collectively, a traditional value of academics (Winter 2009), and predicted that the divide would continue to grow, which has been supported by the literature (Conway 1998; Winter 2009; Whitchurch 2006). Additionally, these challenges may lead to communication breakdowns and other unfavourable consequences.

Academic Paradigm	**Administrative Paradigm**
Goals and Values	
1) Primacy of student learning and teaching process 2) Loyalty to students and colleagues 3) Concern for academic standards	1) Primacy of student through-put and income generation 2) Loyalty to the organisation 3) Concern to achieve an acceptable balance between efficiency and effectiveness
Key Assumptions	
1) Lectures as funds of expertise 2) Resources deployed on the basis of educational need 3) Quality of provision assessed on the basis of input	1) Lectures as flexible facilitators and assessors 2) Resources deployed on the basis of market-demand and value for tax payers money 3) Quality assessed on the basis of output outcomes
Management Ethos	

Academic Paradigm	Administrative Paradigm
1) Collegiality/community of practice 2) Professional autonomy/the trust principle/accountability to peers/tacit knowledge 3) Pluralism	1) Control by managers and the market 2) Managers of performance indicators and surveillance 3) Unitarism

Table 2.2: Conflicting Paradigms (Adapted from Randle and Brady (1997, p. 32)

Academic dissatisfaction with changes in administration management styles is referenced throughout the literature. Olsen (1992) investigated why educators were resigning from their positions pre-retirement; the study includes an account of an individual who took up employment at another institution even though the pay was less and the cost of living was higher, all because they were not receiving recognition or support from their place of employment. Oshagbemi (1996) conducted a study on job satisfaction for U.K. academics. His findings demonstrate there was a wide variance when describing academics satisfaction with their administrators: some academics were very satisfied, while a significant number were seriously unsatisfied with their administration. Fredman and Doughney (2012) examined academic dissatisfaction, managerial change and neoliberalism of Australian academics. Their findings suggest changes in academic satisfaction are directly linked to perceptions of management culture and policy direction. The quantitative and qualitative analysis showed that academics are concerned about six management related issues: 1) Management styles and abilities; 2) Changes in management practices; 3) Administrators not consulting with academics (decision making) 4; Administrators have too much control over academic workload; 5) Institutional staffing levels; 6) Administrators are too focused on profit over educational standards.

The change in administrative operations has affected the higher educational system (Randle and Brady 1997; Lynch 2014). According to Trowler (1998) managers within academia are restructuring, monitoring and adjusting work of academic staff and the conditions in which they work. Additionally, scholars also believe such changes have also negatively impacted the student experience. Randle and Brady (1997) reported an overwhelming majority of respondents believed organisational changes did not enhance student experiences nor have they added value to student learning. Results from this study also revealed that educators have concerns about recruiting students into programmes when they are not adequately

prepared for them, as well as how students are often retained throughout the programme despite their lack of skills and abilities needed for course advancement. New managerialism has certainly impacted the processes in which administrators have operated within higher education institutions; additionally, it has forced them to make consequential decisions related to how to financially sustain itself as the university shifts towards marketisation.

2.4.3 Funding in Higher Education

Funding is one of the most vital parts of the higher educational system, as it is the foundation for institutional operations. The histories and practices of governments in relation to funding and control over higher education vary across nations (Ward 2007). Liefner (2003) explains that European higher education receives the majority of their funding from public sources, guided by *state oriented systems* (Clark 1983), whereas Anglo-American higher education systems rely more heavily on private funding, guided by *market oriented systems*. Yet, under new managerialism, many higher educational systems, including those across Europe (see: Reed 2002; Saint-Martin 1998; Lynch et al. 2012), have been forced to subsidise public funding through private means such as tuition fees, gifts, grants and research contracts (Liefner 2003). Clark (1983) suggests that most higher education systems have been observed to combine state and market systems and therefore acquire revenues from both public and private sources.

Public funding is government steered. *Steering* is described as "externally derived instruments and institutional arrangements that seek to govern organisational and academic behaviours within higher education institutions" (Ferlie et al. 2008, p. 326). In order for higher education institutions to receive funding, governments may have specific expectations funding recipients must meet. Van der Meulen (1998) suggests these expectations to be influenced by a broad range of public policy goals such cost cutting, quality assurance, ensuring social equity etc. Additionally, Miller (1995, p. 58) describes that when funds come directly or indirectly from national state taxes, "the state is able to exercise predominant control over the broad parameters of student recruitment, academic salaries, and, in a more mediated way, research policy". This type of financial involvement, although it is very much needed from an economic standpoint, creates an additional layer of governmental control and regulation that will impact how higher education institutions operate, and may further influence administrative decision-making (Hazelkorn 2007; Salancik and Pfeffer 1974).

As with many services that are publicly provided, budgetary cuts have been a cause for concern. Oliff et al. (2013) describe the financial climate in the U.S. and claim that state cuts have occurred almost universally. They emphasise that eleven of the fifty states have cut funding by more than one-third per student, while two states have cut spending per student in half. Cuts have direct implications on students and staff. A professor from Australia encapsulated the impacts on students in a statement made on ABC radio in Australia,

> What it does mean is that the things that student support fund - the amount of contact hours, the amount of student counselling, the hours in the library, stock in the laboratories, all of the things that are standard parts of the operation of all universities - just get shaved. (Minchin, 2013)

Kolodny (2000) describes how the financial crisis of the 21st century caused U.S. higher educational institutions to either reorganise or close programmes. Likewise, in 2013, the University of Bristol, in the U.K., closed the doors of a leading deaf studies programme. Claims have been made the closure was to help the University save £15 million (Bristol 2010), and the deaf studies centre was not earning enough income to remain viable. Additionally, it was suggested that enrolment numbers were insufficient and did not align with the university's shift in focus to programmes that support single classes with large numbers of students such as business or law (Anonymous Personal Communication, 2014).

Willmot (1998) provides a historical overview to budget cuts faced by higher education institutions in the U.K. He explains that prior to the 1980's, public resources for research activities were initially determined by how many academic staff were employed; however, throughout the 1970's public resources could not keep up with inflation, and the Thatcher government opted to base resource allocation by way of favouritism - the most favoured higher educational institutions received funding and the others experienced cuts up to 43%[11]. Today, although Scottish students have access to a government-funded education, tuition fees in England are amongst the highest in the world (Flood 2016). Tudiver (1999) describes the financial crisis in Canada and explained that since the 1980's higher education institutions began to commercialise. Government cutbacks have forced higher education institutions to appeal for funding from individuals and corporations. Student tuition increased and corporate partnerships between institutions and businesses were encouraged. Additionally,

[11] e.g. Salford University in Manchester England

performance indicators accompanied by reward schemes have become increasingly used, where units who satisfy evaluations are fiscally rewarded, and units who do not are penalised. Utilising reward schemes such as these leaves room for arguments to suggest that such measures impact teaching and learning. Performance indicators are further explained in section 2.4.5.

The economic crisis affecting higher education institutions globally has certainly affected the ways in which higher education institutions function, and the services they are able to provide. However, as described in section 2.2, global expectations of what higher education should be and should provide remain plentiful. Ward (2007, p.11) presents this challenge by saying,

> Higher education systems worldwide are expected to educate more students, provide more support to them, address workforce needs, solve social, scientific and technical problems and do it all better, more efficiently, and in the physical facilities and surroundings appropriate to the task. This expanding role increasingly includes adult students responding to the opportunities and necessities for lifelong learning. Despite variations in demographic conditions and especially in the patterns of foreign immigration, there is a global demand for higher education provisions.

Moreover, funding is imperative for higher education institutions to fully function and run the day-to-day operations. Global expectations remain, but less and less funding is available, forcing higher education institutions to make decisions that have had negative consequences. As Oliff et al. (2013) suggest, if higher educational institutions are unable to make up for the lost revenues, they will either increase tuition, or cut spending in ways that may diminish the quality of education. Administrators may be forced to cut academic positions, course offerings, eliminate programmes, close campuses and/or computer labs, reduce library and other student support services. While Hanushek (1997) suggests increased resources do not have an influence over student achievement, Habeshaw et al. (1992) claim many higher education institutions have had to reduce the amount of individualised feedback and one-to-one attention provided to students because of a lack of resources to support such activities; actions that appear consequential. For example, cuts in higher education budgets have caused a reduction in contact hours between teachers and students, and considering how authentic interactions are a major component for language acquisition (Nunan 1998) provides

further reason to explore how factors, such as budget cuts, are influencing higher education in relation to the RWG.

While subsidising institutional needs via student tuition may be important for institutional sustainability, in response students have developed attitudes that align with consumerism and they view their tuition fees as a formal transaction. Students believe they are purchasing an education, a service which has resulted in increased demands and expectations regarding their educational experience; a value for money mentality (see: Woodall et al. 2014; Tomlinson 2014; Plunkett 2014). Further, James (2002) reports in the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) how student expectations and priorities have been changing, which is coupled with the transformation of student identity over time. The report describes anecdotes from Richard James, who outlined his perceptions of these changes amongst academic staff in Australia, suggesting many academics "believe that a consumerist pattern of thinking is prevalent in students". He explains how educators in Australia perceive students as wanting "quick, easy and cheap education, expecting to be spoon-fed in their learning and demanding explicit value for money" (James 2002, p. 11). These attitudes, which are increasingly discussed in the literature, certainly have influenced and changed dynamics for the relationships between educators and students, and when coupled with the priority given to the student experience, by way of performance indicators, may also impact student learning outcomes.

A large body of literature has emerged on the implications of budget cuts on both student and educator experiences. Burgess and Samuels (1999) suggest numbers of part-time/non-permanent staff now outweigh members of full-time/permanent academic staff, as hiring non-permanent employees is a common practice of administrators in higher education systems as a way of saving money (Peters and Turner 2014). Increased non-permanent contracts often mean smaller departments, with fewer colleagues to share workload related responsibilities. Barrett and Barrett (2007) describe how small departments have greater difficulty in covering sickness, maternity, and fluctuations in student numbers and increases in activity demands. Additionally, Wyles (1998) argues most part-time and non-permanent staff are marginalised. Not only do their contracts often start only a couple days before the start of the term, they also describe not being provided with departmental support in preparation of classes (Wyles 1998), and they are paid anywhere from one third to one half less what their full-time/permanent counterparts earn (Fulton 2000). Finally, non-permanent

staff "can be dropped from the payroll at the stroke of a vice presidential pen" (Walker 1998, p. B6). Dolan (2011) conducted a qualitative analysis on 28 non-permanent educators in the U.S. and this study reported that non-permanent educators share general concerns about the frequency and depth of communication with colleagues, how they often feel undervalued and lack opportunities for skill development. Consequently, the use of the economical employee[12] has also been reported to negatively impact student learning (Umbach 2007; Johnson 2010; Dolan 2011). Considering the majority of these employees do not have offices, telephones, or mailboxes for students to further engage with them directly, it is not surprising their pedagogical effectiveness is questioned (Burk 2000). Additionally, Purcell (2007) describes the unequal power relations between permanent and non-permanent staff, which may contribute to the frustration levels. Full-time/permanent academics have additional workload tasks due to the hiring of non-permanent staff, as there is no guarantee the non-permanent persons will remain in employment from semester to semester. Just as employees without permanent contracts may experience feelings of job insecurity, programme coordinators or other administrators responsible for filling the positions face increase demands due to possible turnover. Each time a person is no longer available to teach, they are then forced to find replacements and monitor teaching activities (Bettinger and Long 2011).

The literature describes several cases of teachers aiming to use innovative teaching strategies (described in section 2.5.4), yet in some cases they feel they are unable to effectively implement them due to budget constraints. Feignbaum and Iqnai (2015) documented the opinions and feelings of academics who passionately described structural constraints brought on by measures of austerity and specifically how higher education funding had negatively impacted teaching quality. Oliff et al. (2013) explains the decision to cut spending consequently reduces both the quality and availability of their academic offerings. Additional consequences of financial constraints are freezes on new hires and promotions, the inability to purchase new equipment and engage in renovation projects on campus, the elimination of temporary workers and restrictions on travel (Hovey 1999). Moreover, Oliff et al. (2013) stated that budget cuts are reasons for reducing student teacher contact hours. Consequently, Fisch (1996) assumes all teachers deliberate how they will meet desired

[12] Anderson (2002) describes how higher education institutions *exploit* non-permanent staff and pay only "a fraction of what the same course would cost if taught by a full-time faculty member" (p. 2).

learning outcomes in blocked 50-minute periods over a course of 14-weeks. He speculates educators eventually decide to 'jam everything in' (Fisch 1996, p. 13). Lujan and DiCarlo (2006) refer to this as the *packed curriculum*, where educators attempt to include as much content as they can within a specific duration of allotted time. Although Fisch (1996) suggests strategic pedagogical processes exist to foster students becoming independent learners by way of determining what can be excluded from curricula, but due to institutional cuts, educators are often forced to leave out more than they deem desirable (Lujan and DiCarlo 2006). Additionally, when the curriculum is packed, it does not allow for classes to be structured and sequenced appropriately. For example, Kyndt et al. (2013) describe how students in engineering and educational sciences faced challenges with having deadlines across multiple classes during exam period, instead of having them spread out over the course of the semester. Ultimately, the deadlines were unmanageable for students as they attempted to study each course in its entirety and were unable to fully process and understand the large quantity of material in order to complete tasks effectively.

Higher education institutions typically utilise credit systems[13] to measure the number of hours students are engaged in learning per week per class throughout a term or semester. While they may be a valuable way to keep track of student progress, and allow students to move across different educational institutions (e.g. as supported by the Bologna Process in Europe), Heffernan (1973) argues a unit of time does not equate to a unit of competence and therefore does not fully represent the learning process. He states,

> In most colleges and universities we have acted on the assumption that there is not effective learning unless a professor offers a course packed in quarter or semester units of a given number of hours per week and the student is exposed to direct instruction in the required number of hours. Content must be padded or trimmed down to fit neatly into the credit unit prescribed for a course, and generally speaking, innovations which would disturb the complex schedule of classes are discouraged. (Heffernan 1973, p. 67)

Heffernan's argument against the use of the credit hour to support learning processes, establishes the grounds for an alternative approach (see: section 4.2.3), however budgetary constraints appear to limit what can be done instead.

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[13] According to Heffernan (1973), the history of the credit hour roots back to Charles Eliot, from Harvard University in the United States. Eliot developed the credit hour in 1893, and his development has profoundly impacted higher educational systems all around the world.

Funding also has influence over the learning environment. Whiteside et al. (2010) suggest educators should pay specific attention to the physical attributes of their classrooms in order to prepare and deliver courses. Further, Walker et al. (2011) claim when learning environments are improved, educators can adapt their pedagogical approaches to newly designed technologically improved spaces, and are able to better engage students. Student learning is thereby improved. However, when higher educational institutions are not able to invest in appropriate facilities, improved technology and even classroom resources, teaching and learning experiences are impeded. Douglas (1996) proposes buildings are functional and economic resources, which should be seen as assets rather than liabilities. However, a survey on the conditions of facilities across 400 higher education institutions in the U.S. concluded there was an estimated amount of $26 billion in accumulated overdue maintenance, with $5.7 billion considered urgent. This type of economical costing represents an overarching threat to higher education institutions fulfilling their missions (Kaiser and Davis 1996). Similarly, Pearson (2000) believes the decline of research and development funding for higher education institutions in the U.K. has consequences for future innovation. As cited in Greenaway and Haynes (2003), according to the Science Policy Research Unit, research and development funding has decreased in the U.K. and they estimated an annual increase of £1.3 in order to match per capita levels to those in the U.S. Moreover, a report produced by Policy Research in Engineering, Science and Technology suggested a minimum £600 million per annum was needed to update facilities to the 21st century. Although this data is from the early 2000s, based on more recent literature, it is reasonable to assume higher education institutions are in similar or even poorer positions (Levenson 2016; Geiger 2015; Marginson 2015).

2.4.4 Industry Partnerships

Due to budget cuts and other financial constraints, higher educational institutions have had to make additional efforts to increase funding sources (Greenaway and Haynes 2003). This has included initiatives to pursue student internationalisation (Rudzki 1995), through which higher education institutions are able to increase enrolment while diversifying the student population, as well as efforts to establish and improve industry partnerships. Industry is an important part of the higher education system. As discussed in sections 2.1 and 2.2, one of the aims of higher education is to provide occupational knowledge, skills and abilities in order for students to be able to successfully transition into the workforce. Therefore, industry

practices and qualifications should inform curriculum decisions (King et al. 2011; Smith et al. 2010). Attempts have been made by professional bodies of sign language interpreters to create educational standards for sign language interpreter education programmes. For example, the European Forum of Sign Language Interpreters (2013) published learning outcome documents which depict the minimum skills that students should acquire within a three-year sign language interpreter education programmes in order to graduate and enter the workforce, thus aligning higher education objectives with industry needs. The benefits of partnership between higher education and industry have been explored, with research pointing to the fruitful outcomes for professions such as architecture and healthcare (see: Boyer and Mitgang 1996; Seifer 1998). By developing partnerships, higher education institutions gain awareness of and can adapt to industry requirements, and industries develop a better understanding of what higher education institutions can and cannot provide.

Partnerships provide opportunities for higher education institutions to reconstruct how instruction is funded, developed, marketed, delivered and supported (Rikard 2003; Slaughter and Rhodes 2004; Prigge and Torraco 2007), as industries can provide financial investment to departments and programmes for mutual benefit. According to Prigge and Torraco (2007), through such partnerships, higher education institutions are provided with the financial support they need to carry out educational research and service missions, while broadening experiences for faculty and students. Together they can identify significant, interesting and relevant problems, enhance regional economic development and increase employment opportunities for students. Such collaborative activities may also help higher education institutions fulfil stakeholders' perceived purposes of higher education.

Industries now have access to expertise they have not always been privy to, working directly with higher educational institutions they are able to aid in the renewal and expansion of technology, while also expanding precompetitive research and leveraging internal research capabilities (Prigge 2005), and they gain access to prospective employees (Miller 1995). For example, Miller (1995) recounts a situation where a director within a higher education institution in the U.K. described the mutual beneficial relationship between hotel employers and the programme. According to the director, hotel employers fund 75% of the programme's full-time students. This example demonstrates how the higher education institution secured continued enrolment and funding sustainability, while the industry secured trained employees. Miller (1995) also described other cases where industry finances

long-term projects at universities in order to create alliances, consortia, and even new organisations. Another direct benefit of higher education/industry partnerships proposed by Elmuti et al. (2005) is how such relationships will allow all partners to have increased awareness of current industry needs, keeping the higher education institutions on the cutting edge of teaching, learning and research.

The benefits for both higher education institutions and industry are vast; however, they do not come without potential challenges. Prigge (2005) suggests such relationships could create problems including conflicts of interest between university and industry researchers, suppression of information from fellow researchers, and undermining of academic standards. Thus, as suggested by Prigge and Torraco (2007, p. 90) higher education institutions must "proactively manage university-industry partnerships and […] put processes in place to minimise the risks to the greatest extent possible while maximizing the benefit." It is evident that when relationships are pursued appropriately, industries may be able to ensure continued financial sustainability for higher education institutions while higher education institutions may provide industry access to future employees. Therefore, in order for partners, and other key stakeholders, as well as the higher education intuitions themselves to monitor the quality in terms of services provided and products produced, performance indicators have been adopted. Higher education institutions are continually shifting to a more performance-orientated culture, where they are increasingly determined to show value for money. Thereby higher education institutions are resorting to the use of performance indicators as a means of assessment aiming to strengthen institutional management for improved accountability (Ball and Wilkinson 1994; Cave et al. 1997).

2.4.5 Performance Indicators

To adapt to new political and economic conditions, higher education institutions are using performance indicators to assess individual and institutional performance in an effort to respond to the desire for total quality control (Fortuin 1998; Kanji et al. 1999). Dietrich (1993) suggests total quality control is a concept used to represent how quality is built into a product. Therefore, in order to build quality, Dietrich (1993) proposes two contingencies. First there must be efficient worker-supervision communication channels and secondly, workers must be self-motivated, self-disciplined and cooperative. Like the concept of managerialism, this concept is not unique to the private sector and has been applied to understanding operations of the higher educational system (Lewis and Smith 1994). As cited

in Ball and Wilkinson (1994 p. 418), Ceunin (1987) describes performance indicators as 'numerical values, which provide a measurement for assessing the quantitative performance of a system'. Higher education institutions can thus be seen as having adopted the use of performance indicators due to shifts toward the neoliberal philosophy and marketisation processes, which valorise quantification and measurability. Although performance indicators intend to demonstrate the accomplishments and achievements of higher education institutions, they might instead portray an inaccurate report of institutional performance, if they are used without caution. For example, higher education institutions focus their attention and efforts on status, reputation in order to climb up the ladder- the university league tables (Warren 2016).

University league tables are lists that rank universities based on an array of factors such as entry standards, student satisfaction, research quality, graduate prospects, which are in theory designed to inform stakeholders about the quality of higher education institutions. They are often perceived to be a key tool for higher education institutions to improve their relationships with industry partners, governments, and elicit interest from prospective students and parents (Hazelcorn 2008). Therefore, higher education institution managers refer to rankings to inform decision-making processes around institutional operations, structures and policies. However, Bowden (2000) notes that people criticise rankings and league tables because of their statistical inaccuracy, and she links criticisms of them to the measures that have been chosen to represent academic quality as well as to the negative impact they have on the overall performance of higher education institutions. Similarly, a study on perceptions of university rankings reported that the majority of respondents view ranking tables as unfair because they are often distorted and inaccurate (Hazelcorn 2008). For example, in the U.K the National Student Survey (NSS) is one avenue for ranking universities. Introduced by the Higher Education Funding council of England, the NSS is distributed to undergraduate students in their final year of study. The survey includes 27 Likert-type questions designed to elicit data about the student learning experience, particularly their satisfaction with teaching, learning, assessment and feedback, academic support, organisation and management, learning resources, the learning community and student voice. Results of the survey, including how many students complete it, as well as whether or not the feedback is positive or negative, are widely used in the U.K. to evaluate a given institution and thus its overall reputation, which is then incorporated into marketing and recruitment strategies. As student satisfaction is perceived to be linked to the quality of

teaching (Skae 2017), anticipation of the survey results may actually pose threat to the quality of education as academic staff can become more focused on eliciting satisfaction rather than on fostering learning.

This preoccupation with student satisfaction has far reaching implications. Research on satisfaction describes it as a feeling someone has when his or her expectations are met. In the context of higher education, Barnes (2007) describes satisfaction using the gap model, which says that if higher education institutions meet or exceed student expectations, students will leave satisfied. However, if their expectations are not met, they will leave dissatisfied. The challenge this notion poses for higher education institutions is that efforts to satisfy student expectations and thus achieve positive NSS results render increasingly important the imperative to give students what they want, which adheres to the well-known business motto that the customer is always right (Mark 2013). By doing so, however, higher education institutions must operate on the assumptions that students are already aware of what they need to know, that their expectations are realistic, and that they know how to measure their experiences accurately. Consequently, higher education institutions readily attempt to ensure students have 'pleasurable and measurable experiences' (Gibbs 2015), rather than challenging them with the uncomfortable, the new, or the strange (Barnett 2011), which is actually more transformational even if not initially recognised by students as such (Skae 2017). Ultimately, while students may graduate higher education institutions highly satisfied, and thus help these institutions achieve higher status, it is feasible that sanction oriented measures are jeopardizing the quality of education provided.

In addition to student satisfaction surveys, higher education institutions are also using degree quality as a performance indicator. Degree quality refers to the number of degrees conferred representing a measurable output (Johnes 1992). To measure this indicator, higher educational institutions may calculate how many students have enrolled across each discipline, as well as how many students are enrolled in the institution at large, and then calculate how many students are graduating and with what level of degree. Higher educational institutions with high graduation rates may appear to be delivering quality services and products. Yet, they also may just be lowering standards through grade inflation processes to rank higher in the league tables, an issue that has been raised in the U.K. and in the U.S. (Rosovsky and Hartley 2002; Yorke et al. 2002; Dill and Soo 2005). Thus, pass rates and dropout rates affecting the number of degrees conferred might not actually indicate

how well the institutions are performing. Dropout rates may particularly be due to unforeseen circumstances experienced by students; marriage, pregnancy, travel or other unanticipated reasons may cause students to drop out and not graduate (Pierrakeas et al. 2004).

A study conducted by Johnes and Taylor (1987) suggests if students opt to continue their education, instead of dropping out, they may have actually perform well in their studies. Therefore, institutions that may enrol a large percentage of mature students who balance their education with employment and family responsibilities may indicate higher percentages of dropouts than higher education institutions with a population comprising predominantly of unemployed young people. This suggests reasons for dropout are ambiguous and may not be a direct reflection of higher education institution performance, but rather of student circumstances. On the contrary, the reasons students drop out could very much be connected to the higher education institution. Medway and Penney (1994) argue some students drop out due to poor, inadequate or inappropriate advice and guidance while others leave because of uninspiring, boring or poorly structured teaching. Certainly, there are many more possible performance indicators that higher education institutions can use to monitor and demonstrate the quality of their institution; however, the aforementioned examples demonstrate if performance indicators are used inappropriately they can provide an inaccurate representation of their effectiveness.

The student experience has also become a surrogate for quality of teaching delivery (Clewes 2003), and yet while many higher education institutions attempt to evaluate these experiences, using a variety of different variables, they often do so without any type of validity or reliability (Rowley 1996, 1997; Oldfield and Baron 2000). This is important to recognise because the results of performance indicators can be used by the institutions and relevant stakeholders to evaluate institutional performance as a whole as well as the effectiveness of individual programmes, and the educators themselves (Ramsden 1991; Gaither 1994; Cave et al. 1997). Evaluations can then be used to obtain additional resources (e.g. funding), which in turn will influence the overall functionality of the higher educational institution. Cochran-Smith and Demers (2008) use the vernacular "more bums on seats" to describe the revenue raising mechanism to increase student numbers in Australian classrooms. Increasing class sizes as a means to generate income have also instigated the establishment of performance indicators that target student enrolment and retention (Dolence

and Norris 1994, Alexander 2000). In order to demonstrate satisfactory or above satisfactory institutional performance in terms of enrolment and retention recruitment, strategies may be developed to increase student numbers (Elliott and Healy 2001). However, when there are more students, teachers are left with less control over their curriculum, how it is delivered and how they spend their time. It should also be noted that educator performance and programme factors have been seen to negatively or positively impact student achievement, specifically student learning outcomes (see: Geringer 2003; Rockoff 2004; Wenglinsky 2002; Wang et al. 1997; Ferguson 1998; Goldhaber, 2002; Sanders 2000; Archibald 2006).

Although academics have acknowledged the need for systematisation and quality assurance, Henkel (1997) reports that academics strongly object to the amount of time such processes consume and perceive them as taking away from other more important tasks. Additionally, Field (2011) reported an instance where in order to keep enrolment and retention numbers up, administrator's pressured teachers to falsify attendance records and raise grades. If teachers refused, administrators would falsify the records and grades anyway. This demonstrates the value administrators may place on student enrolment and attrition, as students are linked to the financial resources that contribute to institution sustainability (Nash 1994 as cited in Randle and Brady 1997). Thus administrators who manage higher education institutions may be endangering the essential responsibilities the public have entrusted them with and the ultimately desired financial gains potentially compromise educational and scholarly standards (Bok 2009).

As discussed throughout he above sections, the economic and political variables that have influenced higher education are vast. Additionally, it should be emphasised that each of the countries represented in this study have experienced their own political and economic challenges in recent years (e.g. Brexit, the 2008 financial crisis, post 2008 recession, changes of government administration). The global model of higher education meanwhile has overall lead to higher education institutions increasingly marketising and operating as business enterprises. These intersecting influences have further complicated the nature of higher education, and in many cases have led to administrative staff increases, the use of performance indicators, the push for greater industry partnerships, and the need to identify avenues for obtain funding. Indeed, such activities can be seen as dominating the higher education institution agenda, and more valued than teaching and learning experience. As all educators, regardless of discipline, are navigating the higher education system, it is thus

important to contextualise their experiences within the workplace in relation to these dynamics.

2.5 Educators

Whether describing a sign language interpreter educator or an educator of any other discipline, educators working in higher education contexts hold a wide variety of responsibilities. Briggs (2005) suggests the traditional role of an academic in the U.K. is to serve as an accredited subject matter expert, to teach students and conduct research. This has also been described by Legato (2006) as a 'three legged stool'. Legato suggests teaching, practice and research each represent a leg of academic stool, and in order for educators to function effectively, each leg needs to be weighted properly to stand upright-making the balance of roles essential. Many scholars have sought to understand and describe the academic identity as well as their roles within academia.

2.5.1 Educator Identity

Many academics teaching in vocationally orientated programmes have one foot in the world of academia and the other within an occupational domain: academics that are connected to an occupational domain as well as the academic domain often have co-existing identities (Billot 2010). Billot (2010, p.5) describes these identities to be "intrinsically bound to values, beliefs and practices" and are held by those holding both professional and academic positions. Additionally, identity will relates to one's unique "sense of purpose, self-efficacy, motivation and commitment" (Day et al. 2006, p. 601) and Billot (2010) also suggests these factors will impact how identity develops, while also significantly impact how people position themselves in the workplace. Blair-Loy's (2003) schema of work development suggests people may have a "cognitive belief, moral commitment, and emotional salience of making work the central focus of one's life" (Williams et al. 2013, p. 211). Even though academics are often suspicious of their administration lacking vision and commitment, they remain steadfast in their educator roles (Boyer 1990). Menges and Austin (2001), suggest that although many academics are motivated, it is often unclear as to what they are motivated by and "*why"* they remain motivated, allowing them to stay committed to their work. This may relate to Roberts and Davenport's (2002) suggestion that those who personally identify with their work are motivated and thereby engaged in it.

Self-efficacy as described by Bandura (1977) are the beliefs one holds, which are used to achieve a goal; and research has shown those with higher levels of self-efficacy are less likely to burnout than those with lower levels of self-efficacy (Friedmand and Farber 1992; Skaalvik 2007). Further, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) note there is an increasing body of empirical evidence supporting Bandura's (1977) theory in relation to teachers[14]. They describe how educators' perceptions of self-efficacy are related to the amount of effort and investment he/she puts into teaching. They suggest it frames their goals, while fostering persistence and resilience when faced with adversity.

Historically, academic identity has been described as autonomous and capable (Henkel 1997, Harris 2005). However, as higher educational institutions have embraced neoliberal values and participated in the marketisation of the academy, higher education has been forever changed, threatening the traditional identity of academics (Deem et al. 2007; Randle and Brady 1997). Therefore, the professional identity of the academic has been forced to evolve alongside the restructuring of the higher educational system, which Nixon (1996) describes as a professional identity crisis. Furthermore, as conflicts between values have risen between academics and the institution, relationships with administrators have become stretched (Del Favero and Bray 2005). In response, Billot (2010) and Nixon (1996) suggest academics take shelter in safe spaces, within their discipline-specific units.

Considering academic identities are often in two worlds, they may find themselves leaning towards their professional identity. For example, Batey (1969) and Williamson (1972) explored the role of nurses in academic settings. They propose that nurse educators are essentially nurses first and educators second, since they often worked as nurses before they entered the second profession of education. They describe how this has become a conflicting and straining experience for some educators. Macfarlane (2006) relates this notion to the general desire of people to feel a sense of belonging and therefore they find themselves further aligning and identifying with their disciplinary silos, which Viitanen and Piiranien (2003) describe as being part of a sub-culture.

[14] Bontempo and Napier (2011), also describe 81% of the interpreter practitioners, within their study, identified themselves as "more than competent", suggesting they have high levels of self-efficacy. This may suggest that sign language interpreter educators may also have a strong sense of self-efficacy since most sign language interpreter educators are also interpreter practitioners.

Silver (2003) argues that when academics ascribe to their disciplinary subcultures, the development of a cohesive organisation is threatened. Taylor (2008) examined academic reactions to the changes in higher education circumstances. Findings indicate academic staff revere the former freedoms of the academy. Winter (2009) illustrates there are also academics who do not support the idea of relishing *what was once was,* as they see it to be counterproductive, and Silver's (2003) claim is upheld. The disparity in how academics respond to changes create tension not only between academics and administrators, but even within academic groups, (as Billot 2010 suggests) has implications for the establishment and overall attainment of institutional goals.

To increase understanding of what has contributed to the development of today's academic identity, traditional roles and responsibilities are described in the following in section 2.5.2.

2.5.2 Educator Role

Academics have always worked long hours and engaged in a variety of tasks. However, due to neoliberal values and organisational shifts toward new managerialisms, educators have been required to adjust to new management styles and managerial related pressures (Deem 1998), which has increased their workloads (see for example: Olsen 1993, Anderson 2006, Houston et al. 2006, Hendel and Horn 2008, Kinman and Jones 2008). Consequently academics today find themselves doing more administrative work, engaging in entrepreneurship activities, and participating in community service (Anderson 2008, Kinman and Wray 2016). Note that these responsibilities are in addition to their more traditional roles of curriculum development (e.g. lesson plan creation and teaching, assessments processes, and interacting with students). Further, Branka et al. (2012) suggest time spent communicating with students is now a significant portion of the academic workday, as within the long hours academics are working, they continue to be interrupted by student demands. Tenneant et al. (2010), suggest the increased accessibility students have to their teachers may be another reason academics feel continual interruption, an experience that was not previously faced by those working in academia before email.

In order to cope with the increases in workload, educators have been reported to work hours that exceed 50 hours per week[15] (Jacobs and Winslow 2004), and spend their weekends

[15] Jacobs and Winslow (2004) suggest this workweek is for all groups of full time academics irrespective of rank and institutional type

attending to job tasks (Barneet 2008; Tytherleigh et al. 2005; Peacock 2010). Due to the copious amounts of tasks they are responsible for, they can also experience role strain (Finkelstien 1978; Baldwin and Blackburn 1981; Austin and Gamson 1983; Eliot 2003). Bess (1982) and Finkelstein (1978) suggest the greatest source of role strain for academics are the 'excessive demands', which are caused by many discrete tasks (Austin and Gamson 1983, p. 27).

This increase in workload has also seen to have negative consequences for academics on a personal level as the imbalance between work and personal/family life becomes extreme (Akerlind and Jenkins 1998). Marcinkus and Hamilton (2006) suggest work-family balance is a key issue for middle aged women, as they deal with demands that are potentially conflicting regarding their careers, children, child care, elder care, and other personal life issues, which flags female academics as more likely to have work/life balance difficulties. Jacobs and Winslow (2004, pp. 117-120) report "on average, married mothers work four hours less per week than do single women without children, while for married fathers the gap is two hours per week." They further explain how "Married mothers are about half as likely as single childless women to work more than sixty hours per week, while married fathers are about two-thirds as likely to do so as are their single, childless counterparts".

The pressures academics face within higher education has been a global conversation and incentive for research over the last decade. Neoliberalism, marketisation and the changing climates of higher education have been reported by Deem and Lucas (2007) and Gordon (2005) across the U.K., while Duke (2003), Churchman (2006), Debowski (2003) explored related issues in Australia. During a similar time frame, Ashcroft (2005) and Middleton (2005) presented challenges faced by academics in New Zealand contexts. Whitchurch (2008) suggests academic roles are more complicated and multi-faceted than what employment documentation implies. Higher education institutions often use workload allocation models to distribute work responsibilities (e.g. 40% teaching, 40% research, 20% administrative). These models will often apply a formula to indicate the number of hours or units educators should devote to various activities (Houston et al. 2006). Houston et al. (2006) explored academic dissatisfaction with workload allocation models. Their findings demonstrate that academics perceive workload allocation models to be ineffective, because they are not accurately reflecting actual work done, they have discrepancies between time

allocated and time spent, and also because they exclude certain tasks, that have to be done, from the model.

Additionally, Houston et al. (2006) report that academics are dissatisfied that the professional positions which they hold outside of the higher education institution are imperative for programme credibility, teaching delivery, and the additional time spent to maintain their own professional registration/credentials is generally not supported or reflected in their official workload models. If workload models are allocated by way of institutional standardisation, instead of being discipline specific, dissatisfaction with them may remain. For example, Brown and Hudson (1998) make the case for time spent on assessment practices in language classes versus other disciplines. They suggest that due to the complexity of the domain and also related to the various testing methods used, it may require more time for educators to assess work than required of those working in the natural sciences. Another such example is the generally accepted norm in sign linguistics that in order to transcribe one hour of videotape footage it can take 20 hours. Therefore, when sign language interpreter educators are assessing video footage, it too may take longer than when assessing work produced in the written form. Likewise, Knight (2006) suggests those in natural sciences may have assessment methods such as multiple choice or short answer, allowing educators to assess students in less time. Furthermore, Woodcock et al. (2007) provide examples specific to academics who are deaf and use sign language interpreting services, reporting on how deaf academics must plan, prepare and negotiate access when booking and working with sign language interpreters. These responsibilities are often not accounted for, but necessary to carry out their day-to-day responsibilities. Yet, even though there are clear differences amongst academic staff and the disciplines in which they work, workload allocation models are typically applied as standard across the whole of a higher education institution and therefore not taking into account what educators need to effectively deliver course offerings and enhance the student learning experience.

The role of an academic is defined by the tasks they most often perform and in many cases academics are expected to conduct research. Therefore, section 2.5.3 examines the academic as a researcher and the implications research has on the teaching and learning experience.

2.5.3 Educators as Researchers

While all educational institutions discussed in this research are termed higher education institutions, it is important to note that not all higher education institutions are research-

focused institutions. For example, as cited in Monikowski (2013), the American Association of University Professors in the U.S. uses five categories of higher education institutions, and only institutions that are in one of these categories are considered research institutions (where academics are expected to conduct and publish research). Other higher education institutions are also producing research, however they are considered more teaching-oriented. Similarly, in other parts of the world, although categories may not exist to separate types of higher educational institutions, some institutions might lean more toward teaching, whereas others orient more towards research (U.K. Government 2017; Geschwind and Broström 2015). Additionally, academics themselves may also have a preferred orientation toward research or teaching. Whether or not these orientations align with the orientations of their higher education institutions might impact the overall working experience for academics. Those academics who desire to conduct more research, but are working in teaching-oriented institutions, may not be allocated time needed to engage with research interests; likewise, those academics working in research-oriented institutions may prefer to engage more with teaching but are required to dedicate a percentage of their time to research. Both types of academics may then find their working conditions dissatisfactory (Fairweather and Rhoads 1995), which potentially will affect the quality of their academic work (Soliman and Soliman 1997).

However, due to the ways in which higher education institutions are funded, in many cases research outputs have become imperative to their sustainability (Gunn and Mintrom 2016; Estermann et al. 2013). Yet, with research being an essential component of higher education, many academics report being overwhelmed with the 'publish or perish' culture[16] which has taken over higher education (Smith, 1990; Garfield 1996; Van Dalen and Henkins 2012). Van Dalen and Henkens (2012) conducted a worldwide survey about the impacts of publication pressures on modern day higher education institutions. Their findings reveal that scholars based in Anglo-Saxon countries experience 'publish or perish' more widely than those throughout Eastern Europe. While scholars working in higher educational institutions within Anglo-Saxon countries do see some benefits (e.g. promoting academic mobility), they also experience a great deal of pressure to publish, and perceive other detrimental effects

[16] Garfield (1996) traced the first notion of the term publish or perish to Wilson (1942). The concept has been used to describe rewards received and pressures faced by academics in regards to needing to research and publish.

(e.g. institutions that push academics to publish in peer-reviewed journals are perceived to discourage the production of local knowledge), which can limit the scope and reach of their research. Many journals are not open access and educators are dependent on their libraries to hold subscriptions to those journals. Additionally, such journals may be limited to the public altogether, and therefore knowledge exchange is prevented.

While research may be imperative for some higher education institutions, whether or not academics are provided the time to research may be dependent on the type of contract and workload allocation model they adhere to[17]. However, if time is not specifically allocated for an educator to engage with research, not only may they experience feelings of dissatisfaction (Fairweather and Rhoads 1995), this restriction of time may have far more ranging consequences. For example, scholars suggest programme curricula should be grounded in research (Healey 2005; Lesson et al. 2014), thus if academics are not engaging with research the curricula, the skeleton and foundation of a programme, may be negatively impacted. Furthermore, Brew and Boud (1995) for example propose student-learning experiences are enhanced through links between research and teaching. Therefore, when educators are not able to effectively engage in the research, their teaching practices may also be impacted, consequently affecting student learning. Monikowski (2013, p. 16) refers to the lack of credible researchers across the profession of sign language interpreting, and refers to sign language interpreters and educators as 'pseudo-scholars', as they often present ideas that are not grounded in research, as she believes they do not even have enough academic and theoretical knowledge of the discipline. Furthermore, Winston (2013, p. 170) argues that while research has expanded over the years on sign language interpreting and interpreter education, "it is not being used for informed decision-making about curriculum, assessment, and the practices of interpreting educators systematic, long-term fashion". Hessmann et al. (2011) also argue that for the profession of sign language interpreting to progress, it is critical that educational institutions embed research in their courses; they believe by doing so a practice-oriented research community will develop, enabling interpreter practitioners to better substantiate best practice.

[17] Due to the various higher education systems, each institution will define the role of the academic job slightly differently and allocate workloads based on their individual model in respect to the weighting of responsibilities (Clark 1983, Cummings and Shin 2014).

In addition to educators serving as researchers, one of their primary responsibilities is to teach, and this role is further described in section 2.5.4.

2.5.4 Educators as Teachers: Practices and Pedagogy and the Development of New Knowledge

Academics are expected to facilitate knowledge exchange amongst student groups to promote learning. Education scholars have promoted that the primary teachers teach is so that *learning* is ensued, rather than focus on the process of *teaching* (see: Nunan 1998; Barr and Tagg 1995; Huba and Freed 2000; Weimer 2002). In order to effectively foster student learning, in addition to the teaching itself, teachers must strategically create lesson plans and courses, review and develop curricula, provide assessment and feedback, and identify and develop resources among other affairs.

A large body of research has been conducted on learning and how educational systems, practices and pedagogies can better cultivate learning.[18] These studies stress that it is critical for higher education institutions to support educators in engaging with innovative teaching practices and adopting pedagogies to enhance student-learning experiences (Guskey 2002, 2003; Entwistle et al. 1992; Hattie 1992, 1993, 1997, 1999, 2003). Therefore, methods educators employ to effectively foster student learning are necessary for appropriately scaffolding[19] students' knowledge and skills (Wood et al. 1976; Vygotsky 1987; McKenzie 1999; Van Der Stuyf 2002). By adopting a learner-centred paradigm, educators have the opportunity to better engage students in the learning process, enhancing overall learning experiences (Glasgow 1977). Moreover, the process of reflection (Schön 1987, 1995) is fundamental for effective teaching. By engaging in a cyclical process of critical reflection on *what is taught* and *how it is delivered*, educators are more able to evaluate lessons and consider their possible adaptations to better transform content knowledge into accessible forms, which fosters the student learning experience (Ehrlich and Webb forthcoming;

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[18] See for example: Bransford et al. 1999; Hannum and McCombs 2008; Lambert and McCombs 1998; Watson and Reigeluth 2008. For studies on teaching practices and pedagogies see for example Sheppard and Gilbert 1991; Harper et al. 2004; Darling-Hammond 2016

[19] Wood et al. (1976) developed the term *scaffolding*, describing interactional talk between learners and skilled others. Vygotsky (1987) suggests intelligence is better understood as what a learner can do with the help of others with more skills. Initially learners are more dependent upon receiving help from those with more skills; over time, they gradually developed greater independence due to the skills and knowledge they acquire.

Brookfield 1995; Howard 2003). Rowland et al. (1998, p. 134) believe: "Teaching which is not accompanied by our own enquiry, reflection and passion for a subject matter in which we are wholly engaged, becomes merely a technical service to customers, the purpose of which is no concern of ours". Thus, to ensure the student learning experience is of quality, it is imperative academics are provided the time and the space to further develop themselves as educators.

Using learner-centred paradigms and effective teaching are not always the norm for teachers, programmes, or even higher educational institutions at large. Rowland et al. (1998, p. 135) argue that what has passed as 'teaching' in higher educational institutions is "appalling". They suggest teaching has become a boring exchange between teachers and students, with success of examinations at the forefront, rather than the passion for and engagement with the subject. They push for the revaluation and change of teaching methods and assessment procedures, and encourage those who teach to consider how they can become bridges between their discipline and the wider world. Additionally, Felder and Brent (1996) suggest decisions to not embrace learner-centred paradigms and its associated practices may be due to a variety of reasons, including individual conflicting philosophies, time availability, and uncertainty as to the effectiveness of the model; others may simply be stuck in their ways (Kember 2009). Barr and Tagg (1995) indicate that because teaching and learning paradigms have contrasting missions and purposes (e.g. criteria for success, teaching practices and learning structures), they also frame perspectives of related educational stakeholders, which in turn influence decision-making.[20] Therefore, the consequences of not adopting learner-centred teaching practices can be disadvantageous. Other scholars also call for change in higher education teaching practices, expressing the great need for educators and higher education institutions alike to employ new and improved methods to support student learning (O'Neill and McMahon 2005; Mohanna et al. 2016).

Competency-based learning is described as an approach predominantly used within work training environments, where occupational competencies are identified and measured to ensure standards are met (Voorhees 2001). The approach has traditionally been recommended for vocational education training, and not as a method for formal educational settings. Voorhees (2001) outlines the steps educational institutions should follow when

[20] Perspectives on how productivity is viewed how departments organise, for example staffing, professional development and resources, and funding is allocated (Barr and Tagg 1995).

implementing such practices. He suggests the initial step is to mobilise all appropriate stakeholders to work in partnership to identify, and define all key competencies to a sufficient level. This way, competencies can be formally assessed. Additionally, he suggests relevant academic staff decide on the most appropriate assessment tools to measure those competencies; he stresses tools should be precise, reliable, valid, and credible. Both assessments and competencies are to be directly aligned with the goals of the learning experience; and students should have clear assessment results provided to them in a meaningful way. They will then be able to develop a plan to address possible skill gaps. Gonczi (1999, p. 180) highlights the appeal to a competency-based approach is understandable, as it has the ability to address educational challenges: "what to teach, how to teach it and ensure it has been learnt".

Competency-based learning has clear advantages including: 1) Learners are focused on specific competencies and permit them return competencies not yet mastered in a learning process, rather than retaking entire classes or modules; 2) Learners are provided with a clear map and needed tools to move toward their goals; and 3) Academics and administrators alike will have more flexibility their educational operations and delivery (Voorhees (2001). However, Voorhees (2001) claims that higher educational institutions prefer to package curricula, forcing educators to adhere to using traditional teaching practices over a pre-established duration of time regardless of the needs of the discipline. If higher education institutions adhered to competency-based learning approaches, the methods in which they operate would need to undergo significant changes, as it may take students different lengths of time to obtain a degree.

There are many great teaching practices available and the way to ensure educators are up to date on current pedagogies, is through professional development and support. A considerable body of literature on professional development, teacher learning and teacher change is available. Many of these studies indicate how professional development experiences can positively influence teaching delivery and student achievement (Shields et al. 1998; Desimone et al. 2002; Fishman et al. 2003; Borko 2004). The notion that many academics hold memberships to both academia and the professional domain implies many of them will also engage in professional development activities related to their occupation, as there are often profession specific mandated requirements that expect submitted evidence as

proof of continued professional development.[21] However, claims by Houston et al. (2006) suggest that many academics are dissatisfied by professional related activities not being included in allocated workloads (see section 2.5.2), which implies higher educational institutions may not finance their professional development endeavours. Additionally, when professional development is domain specific, it does not ensure academics are also engaging in opportunities to develop their own teaching practice. Cheng et al. (2011) investigated academics' perceptions of their own teaching efficacy and found while they are confident in course design, they were at least satisfied with instructional strategy. They also allege most academics have never received formal training in teaching practices and pedagogy, and they claim it is due to the higher education institutions in which they work not actively promoting teacher training. This may explain findings from Norton et al. (2005) who report on how academics' intentions lean more toward knowledge transmission and less towards learning facilitation, which indicates many academics may need additional training on the range of teaching practices and pedagogies available.

Considering the climate of the higher education system, how educators are coping in their work environments is relevant to this research study, as experiences within the workplace have been reported to impact employee and organisational performance. Furthermore, interpreter educators have reported difficulties they have faced in the context of higher education (see: Chapter 1, section 1.2), and these difficulties may have an impact on student learning and the profession of sign language interpreting as a whole. Yet an in depth study on perceived links between these challenges and student achievement has not yet been conducted, and further supports the need for the research presented in this thesis. Therefore, the following sections highlight literature on the relationships between job demands, job resources, and the consequences the relationships have on employee wellbeing and in turn their job performance.

2.6 Analytical Framework

The analytical framework underpinning this study is Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory (Bakker and Demerouti 2014), which is an extension of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al. 2001; Bakker and Demerouti 2007). The theory examines the relationships between job

[21] In many countries qualified/registered sign language interpreters are required to engage in professional development and reflective practice

demands and job resources and how such factors can influence employee wellbeing and predict individual job and organisational performance (Bakker and Demerouti 2014). Demerouti et al. (2001, p. 312) describe job demands as the "physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs". Job resources are defined as "those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that are either/or functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, stimulate personal growth, learning and development". Bakker and Demerouti (2007) provide examples of job demands to be workload, work environments and work related interactions; and examples of job resources include pay, performance feedback, coaching, career advancement and opportunity, social and interpersonal interactions, organisational culture, autonomy, morale, task variety, structure and organisational facilities.[22] Meijman and Mulder (1998) indicate that although job demands are not necessarily negative, when employees are required to invest high effort, they can turn into hindrance demands.

JD-R theory was heavily influenced by four other major models including Herzberg's (1966) two factor theory, Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model, Karaseck's (1979) demand-control model, and Siegrist's (1996) effort-reward imbalance model. The two factor theory model proposes there are two groups of factors in the workplace related to job satisfaction. One group of factors leads an employee to be satisfied, while another set of factors will be the cause of an employee's dissatisfaction (Herzberg 1965). The job characteristics model refers to work design and includes five characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) that affect work related outcomes (e.g. satisfaction, motivation, performance, absenteeism and turnover). It measures these via three psychological states on how employees experience meaning, responsibility and knowledge of results (Hackman and Oldham 1980). The demand control model examines work place stress as being caused by how demanding an employee's job is and how much control the individual employee brings to the situation (controls being discretion, decision

[22] see: Bakker et al. 2003; Demerouti et al. 2001; Salanova et al. 2001, 2003; Schaufeli et al. 2003

latitude, authority etc.). The relationship between demands and controls suggests there are four types of jobs which include passive, active, low strain and high strain (Karaseck 1979). This model was influential to the development of Dean and Pollard's (2001) Demand Control Schema, which has been adapted for sign language interpreters. Finally, the effort-reward imbalance model evaluates the imbalance between efforts and rewards that can lead to strain reactions. It suggests high efforts with low rewards may cause feelings of strain for employees. In addition to efforts and rewards employee personality is a component of the model (Siegrist 1996).

These models have been critiqued by Bakker and Demerouti (2014) as being one-sided, simplistic, static, and not considering the volatility of jobs themselves. Additionally, a major component of JD-R, unlike the other models, is to simultaneously explore dimensions of stress and motivation, and not to continue to explore them separately. From the original inception of the JD-R model, several studies, including many propositions and meta-analyses have been conducted, and it has developed since into a full-fledged theory (Bakker and Demerouti 2014). There are four fundamental aspects of JD-R theory: 1) flexibility; 2) motivational and health impairment processes; 3) interactions between job demands and job resources; and 4) personal resources. These aspects are briefly described separately in the subsequent sections.

2.6.1 Flexibility

A benefit of JD-R theory is its flexibility in the sense that it can be applied to all work environments. The range of professional contexts the JD-R model has been applied to is vast, including but not limited to hospital nurses (Demerouti et al. 2000), homecare professionals, call centre workers (Lewig and Dollard 2003), occupational health and safety services, pension fund employees (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), dentists (Hakanen et al. 2008), and educators (Bakker et al. 2010). The theory proposes all jobs have specific occupational demands, and require a specific set of resources. Or, put differently by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p. 296): "in every job something has to be done" and in order to do those "things" one must have the means or tools to do so. Therefore, a fundamental aspect of the model is that it can be applied to different occupations, as each job type has specific job demands and specific job resources, and the unique relationship between the two is the foundation for JD-R theory (Demerouti et al. 2001; Bakker and Demerouti 2007). Webb (2015) analogises job demands and job resources by comparing firefighters and bakers

in order to demonstrate how demands exist and resources are needed across both occupational types, albeit are different, yet within each type of job the employee will be impacted by the relationship between job demands and job resources as it initiates two distinct processes, that are described in section 2.6.2.

2.6.2 Health Impairment & Motivational Processes

According to JD-R theory, job demands and job resources will initiate one of two processes, a health impairment process, which is energy driven and associated with job demands; or a motivational process, which is driven by motivation and associated with job resources (Demerouti et al. 2001; Bakker et al. 2003). As described by Bakker and Demerouti (2014), job demands have served as predictors of employee health impairments, in terms of exhaustion, psychosomatic complaints, and repetitive strain injury (e.g. Bakker et al. 2003; Hakanen et al. 2006). Job resources have served as predictors for work enjoyment, motivation and engagement (Bakker et al. 2007, 2010). For example, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) conducted a study on job demands, job resources and their relationship with engagement and burnout (these concepts are presented in detail in section 2.7). They included samples of different professional groups (an insurance company, a pension fund company, an occupational health and safety service, and a home-care institution). Results correlated performance feedback, social support, and supervisory coaching with work engagement. Other studies demonstrate that work engagement relates to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and reduction in turnover intention (see for example: Demerouti et al., 2001; Salanova et al., 2000; Schaufeli et al. 2003). Thereby JD-R theory has been used to predict employee wellbeing (see: Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Schaufeli et al. 2009; Bakker et al. 2008), organisational commitment and work enjoyment (Bakker et al. 2010), including employee connectedness (Lewig et al. 2007). This theory also suggests in addition to job demands and job resources instigating either a health impairment process or a motivational process at an employee level, they can also be used to predict organisational outcomes (Bakker and Demerouti 2014), as organisations need motivated workers (Bakker and Schaufeli 2008). Since job demands can contribute to employee burnout and job resources can support engagement, there is also a relationship between job demands and job resources and this relationship is discussed in the subsequent section.

2.6.3 The Relationship between Job Demands and Job Resources.

As previously established, job demands are associated with health impairment processes and

job resources are associated with motivational processes. However, to what extent employee job demands will become problematic appears to be related to the relationship between job demands and job resources. Studies have shown that when employees have access to necessary job resources, the job resources will serve as a buffer alleviating some of the impacts job demands may have on the employee.

Bakker et al. (2005) studied 1,000 employees working in higher education in the Netherlands. The findings reaffirmed that even when employees experience high job demands (e.g. workload, lack of work life balance, and physical demands), when they had access to job resources such as autonomy, performance appraisal, collegial support and a good relationship with management, they were shielded from high levels of burnout. Hence, when employees have resources, they are better able to cope and manage their job demands, and in turn they experience higher levels of motivation and work engagement (Halbesleben 2010; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Similarly, other studies have comparable findings indicating how key job resources such as social support, autonomy, performance feedback, and professional development can mitigate impacts from job demands (Xanthopoulou et al. 2007). However, when employees do not have access to needed job resources, they find their job demands are difficult to manage and some findings have shown those employees also experience sickness leading to absenteeism (Bakker et al. 2003, Clausen et al. 2012) and even burnout (Schaufeli et al. 2009). In addition to specific job resources, employees also have a set of personal resources, which they can use to help them manage their job demands.

2.6.4 Personal Resources

In addition to resources available to employees within the organisation, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) explored the role of personal resources in relation to the original JD-R model, which since has become the fourth aspect of JD-R theory. Personal resources have previously been explored and findings have shown how personal resources foster individuals to be resilient to stress, and promote a positive emotional wellbeing (Chen et al. 2001; Pierce et al. 1989; Scheier and Carver 1992). Personal resources can also moderate the relationship between job demands and psychological health impairments (Van Yperen and Snijders 2000). For example, studies have delineated individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy are less likely to burnout than those with lower levels of self-efficacy (Friedmand and Farber 1992; Skaalvik and Skaalvik 2007). Furthermore, research from Judge et al. (2004) describe how we can predict employees' motivation levels, their job satisfaction, and performance through

self-evaluations; these aspects are more positive when self-evaluations are positive. Judge et al. (2005) suggest that the more personal resources one holds, the more self-regard and self-concordance[23] is expected. Additionally, a study by Walker et al. (2006) found a positive correlation between motivation and self-efficacy. Therefore, drawing on these studies as well as Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory[24], Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) identified employees holding personal resources have increased levels of confidence and are able to mobilise resources to better navigate the working environment[25]. When employees are able to do this, they are also facilitating goal attainment and consequently fostering their own work engagement. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007), emphasise that although personal resources have a negative correlation with exhaustion, indicating the more personal resources one has the lower levels of fatigue one will experience, it does not indicate they perceive fewer demands. Rather, like Hobfoll (1989, 2002) suggests, employees might just be more resilient to unfavourable work environments. Therefore Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) propose the moderating role personal resources have on job demands, specifically the health impairment process, serves in a similar way as general resources, by buffering the impact of job demands can have on employees (Bakker et al.2005). Additionally, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) conducted a longitudinal study on 163 employees from three divisions (human resources, industry, economic management) within an electrical engineering company in the Netherlands. Findings demonstrate how personal resources do not offset the relationship between job demands and job resources, but rather how personal resources are reciprocal with job resources and work engagement over a period of time. Further, that while job resources can predict personal resources and engagement, personal resources and work engagement can in turn predict job resources.

2.6.5 Criticisms of the Job Demands-Resources Theory

While JD-R theory has been cited over 2,400 times and is one of the leading job stress models, it has also been subject to some criticism. Many studies have set out not to test JD-R

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[23] Self-concordance is the idea that people will purse goals based on their own interests and values rather than the interests of others (Sheldon et al. 2004).

[24] Two main assumptions comprise this theory. First, individuals invest resources to help them deal with difficult conditions in order to prevent themselves from experiencing negative outcomes, and individuals strive to protect and accumulate resources.

[25] This study included 714 employees working in an electrical engineering and electronics company in the Netherlands.

theory per se, but rather they have applied it to various studies as a conceptual framework (Schaufeli and Taris 2014). For example, Nahrgang et al. (2011) used their own revised model to test a meta-analytic model of safety behaviour at work, showing the model is not fixed. Crawford et al. (2010) set out to identify two categories of job demands including challenges and hindrances. Through their study they refined the original JD-R model by suggesting that the type of demand was important to consider when referring to wellbeing (e.g. hindrances were identified as being a driving force for personal growth, learning and goal attainment). Other studies only examine some aspects of the theory and not all. For example, Essenko and Rothmann (2007) only focused on the health impairment process of JDR- theory and did not consider the motivational process into their study. The model has evolved over time, and is now considered a full-fledged theory by Bakker and Demerouti (2014); however, there are some unresolved issues that are presented by Schaufeli and Taris (2014). The six issues they have identified with the theory include: 1) The epistemological status; 2) The nature of job demands and job resources; 3) The role of personal resources; 4) The distinction between health impairment and motivation process; 5) Reciprocal causation; and 6) Multilevel issues. These issues are briefly described in the subsequent paragraphs.

While Schaufeli and Taris (2014) recognise the flexibility of the JD-R is considered a strength, they also argue that it in fact is a weakness, as there is limited generalisability. They use the example, "when time pressure x control interaction effect on work engagement is found (see: Kuhnel et al.2012), this does not imply that similar interactions exist between all demands and all resources for all outcome variables" (Schaufeli and Taris 2014, p.55). In order to make the argument of why demands have certain interactions, one is then required to depend upon other theoretical frameworks to provide an explanation. The models often used to explain interactions are models that Bakker and Demerouti (2014) consider one-sided or limited (e.g. Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resource Theory or Bandura's (1997) Social Cognitive Theory etc.). Furthermore, this same issue with the heuristic nature of the theory includes the addition of personal resources that have been embedded into the theory. Schaufeli and Taris (2014) argue that there has been no common way to integrate them into the model without utilising other theoretical frameworks. Therefore Schaufeli and Taris (2014) argue JD-R can be used pragmatically to improve health and wellbeing and organisational effectiveness, but it is often unable to explain why certain phenomena occur.

Schaufeli and Taris (2014) suggest that job demands and job resources are not always two distinct concepts, and while they are often viewed as such because job demands are correlated with negative outcomes and resources with positive outcomes, but not all job demands are equal. It is possible that some job resources, such as described by Crawford et al. (2010), are challenges or hindrances and have different effects on employees. Therefore they suggest a new definition of job demands and job resources:

> Job demands are negatively valued physical, social, and organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs; [and] job resources are positively valued physical, social, or organisational aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands, or stimulate personal growth and development (Schaufeli and Taris 2014, p.56).

These revised definitions of job demands and job resources, Schaufeli and Taris suggest we should consider the motivational processes of burnout and work engagement occur in relation to the theory. They explain that while studies have focused on burnout or work engagement it is important to look at them at the same time because in some cases job demands will have motivating outcomes. However, the validity of this definition has not yet been confirmed. The fifth criticism of JD-R theory by Schaufeli and Taris (2014) is how it proposes unidirectional relations among job demands, job resources, and outcomes. However, scholars have found that longitudinal studies have seen reciprocal causation (Llorens et al. 2007; Xanthopoulou et al. 2008). Therefore, the theory needs to consider dynamic relationships between model components and an added layer of complexity should be addressed. The sixth criticism of the model is that while the JD-R theory has examined individual's work experiences in relation to their perceived job demands and job resources, while it can also be used as an aggregate to depict experiences of a team. However, when this occurs in a team setting the variables need to be specific to the group, as individuals and the group can have different perceptions. Schaufeli and Taris (2014) criticise that while variables have been argued to remain consistent across studies (e.g. individual vs group); they have been incorrectly applied to groups and future studies need to be mindful of how they design their studies in this regard.

While these criticisms are worth exploring in future research, JD-R theory as it stands can be applied in a very pragmatic sense, as it can be studied in relation to an array of concepts, and

can be tailored to meet specific needs of an organisation, given any specific situation. Further, it considers both negative and positive outcomes in terms of impairment and motivation. Finally, because it helps researchers obtain an understanding of what they can expect in a situation and what concepts can be targeted to improve work experiences, it is a key first step in understanding employee work experiences and overall organisational effectiveness (Schaufeli and Taris 2014), which makes it an appropriate framework to apply to this study.

2.7 Burnout and Work Engagement

Although the JD-R model has been applied to higher education institutions (Rothmann and Jordaan 2006; Bakker et al. 2010), knowing such institutions include many schools, departments and programmes (Paradeise and Thoenig 2013, p. 21), it is feasible that across disciplines, academics experience a range of job demands, needing a variety of resource support. Although there may be some common experiences amongst all academics, experiences may also be discipline specific. This assumption is in parallel with findings from Bakker et al. (2003); demonstrating how employees in different positions at a call centre regarded their job demands and job resources differently. Further, because the relationship between job demands and resources has contributed to employee wellbeing (burnout/engagement) and organisational performance (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Rich et al. 2010, Christian et al. 2011), using this model to understand the experiences of educators in specific disciplines may provide insights as to possible links between educators, programmes and student learning outcomes. McInnis (1999) conducted a survey of academics working in higher education and concluded that due to the number of hours worked, and the fragmentation of tasks, research and teaching quality is threatened. Branka et al. (2012) studied time management of academics in a higher educational institution in Australia. Their findings show that due to disjointed days, academics often engage in three to six different activities over the course of a one-hour period. They compare this to the 'vicious work-time cycle' that Perlow (1999) found in software engineers. Perlow (1999) reports that when engineers divide their attention across a range of activities, consequently their productivity levels reduce. Lease (1999) also explains, in relation to the work of Klenke-Hamel and Mathieu (1990), that academics who experience unmanageable levels of stress, are likely to withdraw from student-professor interactions, limit their accessibility to students, and decrease involvement in departmental decision-making and committee

commitments. This demonstrates how high work demand (shown in hours worked) creates challenges for both academics and students alike. Therefore, it is important to provide some additional context on the notion of wellbeing in terms of burnout and work engagement. Burnout and work engagement are conceptualised as a variable that ranges from low to high degrees of experienced feelings. They are not independent and dichotomous variables, suggesting that variables are either absent or present, but rather they are on opposite sides of a continuum, and someone can fall anywhere along that continuum (Schaufeli 2002).

2.7.1 Burnout

Burnout is described as a syndrome including three dimensions: exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced feelings of personal accomplishment (Maslach et al. 1996). These dimensions are defined in Table 2.3. Burnout is a state of physical and mental exhaustion triggered by one's work (Freudenberger 1974), and as described by Kant et al. (2004 as cited in Bakker et al. 2014), burnout does not have an immediate onset and has been confirmed to be a gradual process where energy and enthusiasm levels are slowly depleted. Although it originally was a phenomenon only applied to people who work with other people, as part of human service domains (Maslach et al.1996), it has since been adapted and applies to any person who may feel high levels of exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach et al. 1996). There has been a great deal of research on burnout within the literature, and according to Schaufeli et al. (2002) there are three trends that have emerged. First, the aforementioned point that burnout applies more to those working within human service domains. Second, it is commonly researched and discussed in conjunction with work engagement, and third, it has become a research interest globally.

Dimension	Definition
Emotional Exhaustion	When emotional resources are depleted, one feels they are no longer able to give of themselves at a psychological level
Depersonalisation	Feelings of cynicism and distance from one's work
Personal Accomplishment	Feelings of dissatisfaction with one's achievements on the job

Table 2.3: Three Dimensions of Burnout

In addition to the definitions above, Demerouti et al. (2003, p. 14) define exhaustion as an "extreme form of fatigue caused by prolonged exposure to specific working conditions including persistent and intense physical, affective, and cognitive strain". Demerouti et al. (2001) suggest emotional exhaustion resembles stress reactions shown in research related to occupational stress, namely, fatigue, job-related depression, psychometric complaints, and

anxiety. The overlap between emotional exhaustion and job stressors has been supported in previous literature (Warr 1987; Kahn and Byosiere 1992).

Depersonalisation has been described as the detached and cynical response an employee exhibits amongst consumers and colleagues (Demerouti et al. 2001). It has also been described as disengagement (Freudenberger 1974) or cynicism (Maslach and Jackson 1981), as not all professions work with people (Maslach et al. 2001), and yet burnout is not limited to one occupational type (Huebner 1993; Maslach et al. 2001, Maudgalya et al. 2006). Disengagement is when employees distance themselves from work, work objects, or work content signifying a severe emotional, cognitive and behavioural rejection to the job (Freudenberger 1974).

Finally, reduced personal accomplishment refers to an employee's self-evaluation where the employee believes work produced is no longer effective and therefore feels unable to meet job responsibilities (Maslach 2003). However, it has been argued that reduced personal accomplishment does not play as prominent a role in burnout as does exhaustion and disengagement (Lee and Ashforth 1996; Schaufeli and Enzmann 1998). Leiter (1993) explored and ascertained emotional exhaustion leads to disengagement, whereas reduced personal accomplishment develops independently. Additionally, Bandura (1986) views personal accomplishment as a facet of self-efficacy that is connected to how individuals adjust to demanding situations.

Maslach et al. (1996) describe how consequences of burnout do not simply impact the person experiencing symptoms of burnout, rather they also impact those associated with the person (e.g. clients, colleagues etc.) and may have wider serious impacts on the intuition in which they interact. For example, results from studies[26] on those within human service professions have identified how burnout can lead to a reduction in quality of provided services, influence low morale, absenteeism, and job turnover. Additionally, these studies have documented other self-reported personal dysfunctions linked with experiences of burnout including insomnia, physical exhaustion, substance abuse and familial troubles. Although burnout may contribute to depression, it is not in fact depression (Hakanen et al. 2008), as depression is a clinical syndrome and burnout relates to a crisis one has regarding their relationship with work (Maslach 1996).

[26] See for example Jackson and Maslach 1982; Maslach 1976; 1987a, 1978b, 1979, 1981, 1982a,1982b; Maslach and Jackson 1982a, 1981b, 1982, 1984a, 1984b; Maslach and Pines 1977

2.7.2 Work Engagement

As previously described, work engagement is accepted as the opposite of burnout (Maslach et al. 1996; Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). Several scholars have defined and unpacked the concept of work engagement. Kahn (1990, p. 694) first described personal engagement as "the behaviours by which people bring in or leave their personal selves during work role performances". He suggests engaged employees demonstrate the level of engagement through their physical involvement, cognitive valance, and emotional connections to their work. Roberts and Davenport (2002) propose that work engagement is a person's level of involvement in his or her job; as those who personally identify with their jobs are also those who are highly engaged in their work. Employee engagement has also been described as the amount of effort and flexibility employees have for their job (Frank et al. 2004), as well as both the intellectual and emotional commitment one has for the organisation in which they work (Baumruk 2004; Richman 2006 and Shaw 2005). Most simply put, Truss et al. (2006) define employee engagement simply as 'passion for work'. Maslach and Leiter (1997) assume those with low levels of emotional exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy (feelings of personal accomplishment), are therefore engaged in their work. However, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) suggest that those experiencing low levels regarding the three dimensions of burnout, are not necessarily engaged with their work and describe the concept of work engagement that contextualised this research; they define work engagement as "a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption" (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004, p. 295). Although most likely burnout and engagement are substantively negatively correlated in practice, indicating they are opposites, whereas Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) value them as independent states of being.

Like burnout, work engagement is comprised of three dimensions; vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). Schaufeli et al. (2001, p. 74) define work engagement as:

> Engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour. Vigor is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to

being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterised by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work.

Although absorption has often been included as a contributing factor to measure work engagement, some studies have opted to exclude it as a factor and focused their attention on dedication and vigour. Therefore, scholars have challenged whether or not it should be included as part of the UWES-17 (see: Llorens et al. 2007 and Gonzalez-Roma et al. 2006). However, Mauno (2007) argues absorption is a dimension worth researching more, as it appears to have a unique value for motivational experiences. It has been reported that those with high levels of absorption are highly intrinsically motivated (Deci and Ryan 1985) and those who demonstrate high levels of dedication are also heavily involved with their jobs and see the psychological importance of the job in their life (Mauno 2007).

Sonnentag (2003) links work engagement to the motivation to participate in personal and professional development opportunities. There are also indications suggesting engagement positively correlates to health.[27] Lastly, work engagement also positively correlates with job performance. Salanova et al. (2005) conducted a study including employees from Spanish restaurants and hotels. Results indicated that the level of work engagement of employees positively impacted the services provided, predicting extra-role behaviour and customer satisfaction. These results also link employees' job performance to the performance of the organisation as a whole; if customers are satisfied, business is likely to do well.

Just like burnout is not depression (Hakanen et al. 2008); work engagement is not synonymous to workaholism. Schaufeli et al. (2006, 2008) show that while workaholism and work management are often conflated concepts. Although both types of employees have a strong work ethic and commitment to their organisations, those who are workaholics have developed so much to the point that they jeopardise their mental health and external social connections; while those employees who are engaged in their work report feeling mentally and socially well. Furthermore, Schaufeli et al. (2002) suggest high levels of absorption

[27] Schaufeli et al. (2003) indicates engagement relates to low levels of depression and distress; Demerouti et al. (2001) links engagement to fewer psychosomatic complaints.

make it difficult for employees to detach from their work; Csikszentmihayli (1990) describes a similar concept of *flow*. The concept of flow describes a person's state of mind that consumes them to the point they are so engrossed in an activity nothing else seems to matter. Often, those experiencing flow will continue to engage in the activity even at great cost. These concepts do appear related and some scholars have described their similarities (see: Gonzalez-Roma et al. 2006 and Llorens et al. 2007). However, absorption is specifically related to the work environment and is a continuous state of being, whereas flow is considered to be an experience that a person can have at any time not solely in the workplace (see: Hallberg and Schaufeli 2006; Schaufeli et al. 2002a and Schaufeli et al. 2006). Sections 2.71 and 2.72 aimed to provide a general understanding of employee burnout and work engagement, for the purposes of this study further examination of how such factors are affecting educators is needed and relevant literature is reviewed in the subsequent section.

2.7.3 Educator Burnout and Work Engagement

It has been reported that educators have experienced both aspects of wellbeing in terms of burnout and work engagement. Teaching is known to be a stressful occupation (Travers and Cooper 1996; Gillespie et al. 2001; Kinmann 2014). In fact, Farber (1991) estimated between 5%-20% of educators in the U.S. are burnt out at any given time. When educators experience levels of burnout through feelings of occupational related stress, emotional exhaustion, and/or disengagement, and they are unable to manage their job responsibilities; it is feasible to assume a breakdown within the higher educational system can occur. However, other research suggests many educators report contentment and are enthusiastic about their work (Kinnunen et al. 1994; Harman 2001, 2003), and other scholars show educators find their work both rewarding and satisfying (Borg and Riding 1991; Boyle et al. 1995).

Hakanen et al. (2006) applied the JD-R model to 2,038 educators in Finland. They set out to explore the health impairment process and the motivational process of JD-R theory. For example, job demands induce feelings of burnout promoting ill health; while job resources induce feelings of engagement and promote organisational commitment. In order to conduct this study, they preselected three job demands to explore, which were identified as educator stressors in previous studies.[28] Their results indicated that among the educators within this

[28] Hakanen et al. (2006 p.43) used the job demands used in this study: "1) disruptive pupil behaviours (e.g., Boyle et al. 1995; Evers, Tomic, and Brouwers, 2004; Kinnunen and Salo, 1994), 2) work overload (Borg and

study the energy driven process leading to health impairment was more prominent than the motivational process leading to engagement.

Gillespie et al. (2001) conducted a longitudinal study on 15 higher educational institutions in Australia, where they examined occupational stress amongst academics and general staff. They noted that over time, there was a dramatic increase in stress amongst educators in higher education and general staff. Five major sources of stress among academics were identified in this study, namely: insufficient funding and resources, work overload, poor management practices, job insecurity, and insufficient recognition and reward. Participants in the study reported they had experienced stress, which they perceived to negatively impact their job performance. They expressed stress was keeping them from delivering quality work and therefore lowering their standards. Ultimately, this generated a destructive cycle of increasing stress and poor performance. Job insecurity, a common feeling from those not holding permanent contracts, has also been found to negatively associate with motivational work related experiences, such as job involvement and organisational commitment (see: Kinnunen et al. 2000; Mauno and Kinnunen 2000; Sverke et al. 2002).

Occupational stressors amongst educators in higher education have been on the rise (Fisher 1994; Gillespie 2001). Research has indicated occupational stress has had serious impacts on workers' job performance in regards to creativity, productivity and overall quality of work; while at the same time impacting overall health, wellbeing and morale (Winefield 2000). Armour et al. (1987) concluded that consequences of occupational stress within academia are vast and suggest stress amongst educators can have serious implications on the quality of teaching and research, resulting in feelings of detachment, low job satisfaction and low job commitment. Unmanaged occupational stress can lead to employee burnout (Winefield et al. 2002; Gillespie et al. 2001). Furthermore, Kinman (2014) argues that features of academic life that once protected the academic from work stress are rapidly disappearing, which may lead to unmanaged occupational stressors triggering employee burnout (Winefield et al. 2002; Gillespie et al. 2001).

Other studies about workplace stress have linked occupational stress to injury, disease, absenteeism and low productivity (see: Karasek 1979; Schurman et al. 1994; Jacobsen et al. 2014). Barnes et al. (1998) conducted research regarding occupational stress on educators

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Riding, 1991; Burke and Greenglass, 1995; Kinnunen and Salo, 1994), and 3) a poor physical work environment (Bakker, Demerouti, and Euwema, 2005; Farber, 2000)".

and reasons they may decide to leave teaching. From a sample of 306 higher education institutions, they found the two major predictors of intent to leave were the sense of frustration around time commitments and a sense of a lack of community at their higher education institution. The literature has shown stress is clearly associated with excessive time demands (Gmelch et al. 1986; Mosadeghrad et al. 2011). Moreover, Kinman and Wray (2013) propose help and support from colleagues may reduce stress and serve as a coping strategy in the academic environment. Further, as cited in Altbach (1996), Hass (1996) describes how collegial relationships are critical in academia as they serve a major contribution to overall job satisfaction. Similar studies have also indicated workplace social support as a positive predictor of job satisfaction (see: Harris et al. 2001; Smith and Tziner 1998). Workplace social support has been defined as "actions of others that are either helpful or intended to be helpful" (Deelstra et al. 2003, p 324.). Therefore, without experiencing positive levels of collegial support, academics may then begin to experience feelings of stress and job dissatisfaction. However, the JD-R model in these studies was not specifically applied in a clear fashion. Some of these identified stresses can be categorised as job demands (e.g. work overload), and job resources (insufficient funding and resources). Additionally, findings of how such stressors have had an impact on educator wellbeing also appear to align with the processes by the JD-R theory described in section 2.6.

On the contrary, Guglielmi and Tatrow (1998) and Rudow (1999) suggest healthy engaged and motivated educators are more likely to perform and attain educational goals better than colleagues experiencing symptoms of burnout. Ryan and Deci (2000) suggest motivation to be what moves someone to action; they differ between intrinsic motivation, those actions based on individual enjoyment/interest, and extrinsic motivation, those actions based on intended outcomes. Research suggests educators' teaching-related perceptions, beliefs, and intentions are related to their motivation, and influence their classroom behaviours (Donche and Van Petegem 2011; Kember and Kwan 2000; Oolbekkink-Marchand; van Driel, and Verloop 2007; Prosser and Trigwell 1999) as well as the motivations levels of their students (Jang 2008; Reeve et al. 2004; Roth et al. 2007).

Students appear to like and respond to educators who are enthusiastic and able to mobilise their interest, energy, excitement and curiosity (Bakker 2005; Patrick et al. 2000). If employee work engagement amongst educators has an impact on their performance, it raises the question about the current levels of work engagement amongst sign language interpreter

educators and how this may impact student outcomes. Job demands experienced by sign language interpreter educators and the resources they use to manage such demands has only been reported in the literature once by Webb and Napier (2015)[29]. By further examining specific job demands and resources of sign language interpreter educators, new insights can be gained from their work conditions and work experiences. If demands are high and resources low, it may have an effect on their job performance, which could be connected to student learning outcomes. Therefore, if we are aware of what the contributing factors are that affect wellbeing, as Maslach and Goldberg (1998) describe, modifications can be made through the addition of appropriate interventions that help employees cope with stress and burnout. These modifications will ultimately reduce the negative impact on one's job performance, and therefore better support student achievement. The notion of the relationship between employees' job demands and job resources can negatively affect wellbeing, which can then lead to negative impacts on job performance, is another reason for this research. If sign language interpreter educators are lacking resources, making it difficult for them to meet job demands, affecting their overall wellbeing, this may also be impacting their job performance. Further, understanding of how educators and programmes have an impact on student achievement may establish that the conditions they operate under may also be contributing factors to the RWG.

2.8 Summary of the Literature Review

This chapter provided a broad view of the past and current higher educational system. It identified how higher education is a system and is influenced by its interconnectedness to other parts of the system. This review of the literature identified that interpreter education is jointly connected to the profession of sign language interpreting which in itself is another identified system. In this context, the understanding of interpreter education within the system of higher education is paramount, as it provides insights into the many internal and external factors that intersect and impact the overall functioning of programmes and the higher education institutions at large. Additionally, the purposes of higher education were reviewed, including the linkage of graduate employability being driven by the adoption of a neoliberal philosophy, which is further promoting marketisation of the higher education institution. Though some may disagree fundamentally with this purpose, many key

[29] This study was the scoping study for this research thereby foregrounds this thesis.

stakeholders support it and have criticised higher education institutions for not being able to adequately prepare students for the workforce. While the roots of interpreter education are heavily grounded within deaf communities, the professionalisation of sign language interpreting have made it so higher education institutions have become major providers of formal training for sign language interpreters. However, like higher education has been criticised for not producing work ready graduates, interpreter education has been described as not providing work ready sign language interpreters.

In order to contextualise some of the issues faced by interpreter educators, factors were presented to understand the functionality of higher education institutions such as the introduction of new managerialism and total quality control, how higher education institutions are funded, the relationships higher education institutions have with industry, and indicators used to measure the performance of the institution at large. These factors have been presented in this chapter to provide a general contextualisation of higher education as a system and to demonstrate how institutions have changed in response to neoliberalism and marketisation. Therefore a range intersecting issues that are multi-layered and complex have been presented, each of which could be examined and researched further outwith this study, as this thesis does not aim to conduct a complete critical analysis of the higher education sector. However, this discussion has sought to generally contextualise the nature of higher education in order to better situate the daily working experiences of sign language interpreter educators that are the focus of the present research. Furthermore, the review of the literature included an understanding of educators, their identity and high levels of self-efficacy, their role which includes teaching and research, among other activities that have often left them experiencing role strain and interfering with a healthy work/life balance. The final sections provided a detailed account of JD-R theory and how it relates to employee wellbeing, specifically engagement and burnout, as such factors have been known to impact employee and organisational performance.

The current preparation of sign language interpreters is perceived as not meeting demands for qualified interpreters (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005; Bontempo and Napier 2009; Leeson and Lynch 2009; Winston 2013), thus to better our understanding of the current state of sign language interpreter education more research is needed. Therefore, this thesis provides further examination on the experiences of sign language interpreter education programmes in the context of higher education and how they perceive the higher education

system to impact them as educators as well as their perceptions of possible impacts on student achievement. While there have been some accounts of the interpreter educator experience, and what constitutes an effective interpreter education programme (Godfrey 2010), there have been no in-depth studies on the experiences of interpreter educators, in relation to their job demands, job resources, overall wellbeing and how they perceive such factors as to impact student learning outcomes. Therefore, as previously presented in chapter 1, the four research questions that guide this study are:

1) What are the job demands influencing the work environment as perceived by sign language interpreter educators?
2) What job resources are considered essential by sign language interpreter educators and are they satisfied with such resources in managing their job demands?
3) In consideration of sign language interpreter educator wellbeing, are sign language interpreter educators engaged in their work or burned out by their work?
4) As perceived by sign language interpreter educators, how do job demands and job resources influence their job performance and overall programme operations in relation to the RWG faced by programme graduates?

Chapter 3 provides a detailed account of how the methodology, guided by a pragmatic ontology and epistemology, uses quantitative and qualitative data to answer the research questions.

Chapter 3-Methodology

This chapter describes the research methods in terms of approach, design, implementation, distribution and analyses used to conduct this study. Before addressing how each of the research questions will be explored in depth, it is imperative to present my ontology and epistemology, making clear my position in relation to this research.

3.1 Ontology and Epistemology

This research is rooted in pragmatist ontological and epistemological perspectives. It is my pragmatist beliefs that shape my approach to theory, methodology, and ultimately how data are understood and discussed (Crotty 1998). Pragmatism is a philosophical tradition that originates in the works of Charles Sanders Peirce, William James, John Dewey, and George Herbert Mead. Their original works on pragmatism influenced the works of Richard Rorty, Larry Laudan, Susan Haack and Joseph Margolis (Bacon 2012, Pratt 2016), who developed pragmatism further. The aforementioned pragmatists have different areas of interest, predominantly within sciences and humanities; yet in conjunction to their research and philosophical interests, like me, *they were all educators.* Laydjiev (2012) explains pragmatism to be based on the belief that reality is continuously renegotiated, debated and interpreted in light of its usefulness in new unpredictable situations. Accordingly, all of our experiences impact how we continue to interact with the world around us. Considering that experiences and how we individually respond to them varies, which indicates what we know and believe to be true, may also vary (Dewey 1983). The pragmatic epistemology does not suggest we should stop seeking truth, nor does it promote there is only one way to find and understand truth - but it advocates what may be true for some, may not be true for others. Furthermore, pragmatists' epistemology is primarily based on a broader emphasis of the importance of practical consequences. Educational research is one discipline where the practical implications of a pragmatic approach to research have been particularly welcome (Fry et al. 2008).

Dewey, an American philosopher from the 20th century, has been a leader in educational research and reform and it has been his theories on progressive education, emphasising experiential learning, that have been most impactful for me as a teacher, researcher and author of this thesis. Dewey was the first pragmatist to offer social theory (Hilderbrand 2008). Within his philosophy, he promotes the theory of the act; specifically focusing on the

transactions between people and their environments, which are stimulated by anthropic impulses (Dewey 1983). Alexander (1987) further describes this as how behaviour and perception are established in the human experience, which has been organised by meanings in association to activities. Perception has been described as "the result of an interaction between phenomena and our reactions to them, which are based upon past experience and habit" (Pratt 2016, p. 6). Dewey (1983) explains a habit to be an acquired predisposition that has developed across social time and space. Habits constitute social reality and pragmatists see them as how we construct and reconstruct our environments based upon direct experiences. Experiences are founded on our ability to think about external things to improve our own understanding (Hookway 2016). Dewey (1997) argues experience is full of inference; that it is a process requiring one to interact with surroundings in order to obtain information to satisfy our needs; again, emphasising practical consequences.

My reality and my understanding of the world around me are heavily rooted within education, as my everyday experiences have been largely associated with learning and teaching interactions (in positions both as student and as teacher). The interactional dimension of my pragmatic philosophical positioning serves as a bridge to my teaching philosophy, which is based on a learner-centred paradigm, and when taken together, these positions shape my research interests and approaches. Learner-centred teaching (also known as student-centred) is very much at the core of my teaching philosophy.[30] McKeachie (1990) provides the historical trajectory of research in college teaching, which includes the development of research on teacher-centred and student-centred learning paradigms. To contextualise the development of these paradigms, in the 1940s, after World War II, the field of psychology experienced two movements: nondirective and group-centred counselling which improved the practices of psychologists. Psychologists saw benefits of facilitating group-centred counselling practices and educationalists opted to follow up in how this type of approach may benefit teaching and learning. According to McKeachie (1990), the research that occurred on these approaches then influenced educational research and how similar approaches may also improve teaching and learning. Teachers ordinarily adhered to "traditional instruction" teaching practices, which Hannum and Briggs (1982) describe as teaching environments which foster passive learning, ignore student needs, and is a

[30] Refer back to Chapter 2, section 2.5.4 for more details on learner-centred vs. teacher-centred paradigms.

disservice to developing students' problem solving and higher order thinking skills. Methods of "traditional instruction" have become known under a teacher-centred paradigm. Those who adhere to such a paradigm suggest the educators' primary role is to transmit their knowledge (their truth) to the students (Cuban 1993; Huba and Freed 2000). At the other end of the continuum is the learner-centred paradigm, which promotes teaching methods that create environments where students hold a substantial responsibility in both teaching and learning processes (Cuban 1993). With this belief, educators aim to serve as learning facilitators in order for students to construct knowledge and understanding through a process of gathering, synthesising, and integrating information with the general skills of inquiry, communication, critical thinking, and problem solving (Huba and Freed 2000).

Early research on the effectiveness of teacher-centred versus learner-centred approaches were inconsistent (Dowaliby 1971), yet more recent research has demonstrated the value of learner-centred teaching approaches (Brown 2008; Tyma 2009, Wright 2011; Weimer 2002; Perry et al. 2005; Arends 2014; Savery 2015). These practices encourage students to not merely accept knowledge from educators as truth, but to become active learners who engage higher order thinking skills by asking why and how, and then connect information to their own experiences for the purposes of creating new and deeper understandings (Cuban 1993). Given that I adhere to learner-centred teaching paradigms, I often ask students to challenge what they are told, reflect on the beliefs they hold, and be open minded to alternative points of view. Lastly, students enter the classroom with unique life experiences, and I believe they will use those experiences to construct and reconstruct their own understanding of reality, which also influences the manner in which they develop knowledge. Equally, I expect no different of myself when seeking new knowledge and understanding, thus, I realise my experiences as student and educator have influenced how I engage with and understand the research process. The majority of research paradigms appear prescriptive thereby requiring a particular set of research methods while excluding others (Feilzer 2010) (e.g. positivism often underpins quantitative research whereas constructivism often underpins qualitative research). This prescriptiveness embodied by many of the research paradigms is in conflict with my beliefs that as individuals we co-construct our understanding of truth through our experiences and if we opt to see truth and arrive at knowingness through only one lens, I believe intellectual curiosity, creativity and sociological imagination is hindered (Mills 1959, Feilzer 2010).

The philosophical visions originally suggested by Peirce, Dewey and James set out to explain how we understand our reality, and our truth. Rotry, in Goodman (1995), suggests our truths are our own, and yet we as humans are fallible, thereby suggesting the feasibility that our truths will at times be false. This demonstrates how knowledge gained through past experiences, may ultimately challenge or enhance our original understandings. Therefore, as suggested by Rotry in Goodman (1995), we must evaluate our knowledge through our experiences in order to achieve our goals. Rorty (1999) suggests research paradigms are an attempt to produce knowledge that corresponds to, or best, represents reality. Therefore, to produce knowledge that corresponds to my reality, pragmatism is the most appropriate research paradigm to underpin this research. Mixed methods researchers are often pragmatists, as the belief rationalises the integration of paradigms that fundamentally have different assumptions (Johnson and Onquegbuzie 2004; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2010), and it provides me with the opportunity to explore my own experiences as a sign language interpreter educator in relation to other sign language interpreter educators' experiences. Further, I believe upon dissemination of research findings, interpreters educators at large may also reflexively consider them in relation to their own experiences, where they can confirm or refine their understanding and positioning of the higher education environment as it relates to student learning outcomes.

3.2 Research Ethics

In order to safeguard the anonymity and confidentiality of the research participants, ethical considerations played a central role in the development of this study. Approval was applied for and received from the School of Management and Languages, (now School of Social Sciences) ethics committee at Heriot-Watt University for both the scoping study as well as the main study. Online forms submitted to the committee provided information on the projects (Phase 1, Phase 2 and Phase 3) to ensure the quality and integrity of the research, that informed consent would be granted, that I would respect the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants, and that I would make sure the participants partaking in the study did so voluntarily. In order to support my request for ethics approval, the documents provided in Appendices A, B, C and D were submitted in conjunction with these forms.

Additionally, in order to ensure participants understood the nature of the study and provided me with their consent to participate, they were given information on the study in English, ASL, BSL and International Sign. The written and signed information aimed to advise

potential participants that confidentiality and anonymity would be protected; the information sheet and videos also included my contact information so that any questions or concerns participants had about the study could be addressed. Some participants reached out (via email and in person) during and after the data collection to confirm that their comments would not be labelled or discussed in any way that would indicate the country they worked in, as they did not want to risk their identity being publicised. I assured them these details would be either anonymised or not included. It is important to note that some countries may only have very few or even one sign language interpreter educator, and consequently indicating their country would make their identities obvious. Therefore, when presenting the demographics of the participants, careful considerations were made as to which demographic aspects could be revealed. While I am aware that adding additional demographic information may have better contextualised the findings, this study aimed to provide a snapshot of experiences that sign language interpreter educators' face and was not designed as a comparative cross-country study. Thus, in order to protect the research participants, this study will thus only provide limited demographic information and not include any information that could put the participants' identity as risk, particularly in the qualitative analysis presented in Chapter 6, where these details would most likely have emerged.

3.3 Design

Johnson and Onwuebuzie (2004, p.17) describe mixed methods research as "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study". Mixed methods research has continued to grow in interest in recent years, with contributions focusing on the use of mixed methods research in interpreting studies (Hale and Napier 2013). The data included in this thesis is predominantly quantitative, with qualitative elements, and therefore some researchers may not consider this study to represent mixed-methods research strictly speaking. However, it is important to note that the overarching design of the study has been developed by way of a mixed methods lens.

By first conducting a qualitative scoping study to examine the extent, range, and nature of the research activity (see Webb and Napier 2015), I gained initial insights into the experiences of sign language interpreter educators across four countries through eight semi-structured interviews. A thematic analysis of this data then helped clarify the research questions addressed in the present thesis, influenced the types of questions included in the JDRS-IE,

and also played a role in understanding the data generated through the main study and the wellbeing study. Since the results from the scoping study were published in the *International Journal of Interpreter Education* in 2015, the results from this initial phase of the research are not presented in detail in this thesis (see section 4.1 for a summary). The choice to separate this data and publish it prior to the completion of the thesis reflects careful consideration of the practical constraints imposed by the thesis format (e.g. word count/page length); however, this first phase of the research is still considered a crucial component of the overall study, as aspects of the results are drawn on throughout this thesis.

The main study, following the scoping study, primarily aimed to address the first, second and fourth research questions (see: Chapter 2, section 2.8). The JDRS-IE was developed as a survey instrument specifically designed to extend the reach of the study, and statistics were deemed the most appropriate way to measure and generate the majority of findings; the qualitative elements however were analysed thematically in the same fashion as the scoping study.

Subsequent to the JDRS-IE, a follow up study was conducted in order to better understand the wellbeing of sign language interpreter educators using previously validated survey instruments (described in section 3.7). The decision to make this element a follow up study and not include the instruments in the main study within the JDRS-IE was based on the length of the JDRS-IE: conducting two separate studies aimed to reduce the of survey fatigue negatively affecting participation. As I aimed to draw participants from the same sample for the follow up study, I opted to use convenience sampling by inviting those who had already participated in the JDRS-IE to take part.

To contextualise the time frame of this study, it was researched, designed, implemented, analysed and written up over a four year period. The first two years (September 2013-September 2015), I was working on the study as a full-time doctoral student. However, in September 2015 I took up a full-time role as an academic at Heriot-Watt University and worked on the study part-time. Upon completing the analysis of both the main study and the wellbeing study in January 2016, I began to write up of the thesis and formally submitted in June 2017. As will be discussed in Chapter 8, using statistics represented a limitation to the study, as my own initial understanding of statistics was narrow and I therefore spent considerable time researching and learning the appropriate methods for undertaking statistical data analysis. The period of analysis thus included not only the process of

analysing the data but also preliminary phase of learning about how to operationalise such methods.

Due to the imposed time constraints of completing the PhD on time, the decision to not triangulate the findings from Phases 1, 2 and 3 with more qualitative data through semi-structured interviews and focus groups was made in consultation with my supervisors. At the same time however, presenting data from phases 1, 2, 3 during interactive workshops at three conferences[31] allowed me to gather informal qualitative feedback from sign language interpreter educators on their responses to the data collected. Although these sign language interpreter educators were not necessarily the same as those who participated in the study itself, the feedback they provided offered me casual confirmation that the data sets resonated with their experiences as sign language interpreter educators. More formal qualitative data triangulation will be the focus of the next planned step of the research.

The design, implementation, and processes for data analysis of each phase of the research are described in the following sections and outlined in Figure 3.1.

[31] The scoping study was presented at the World Association of Sign Language Interpreters in Istanbul Turkey in 2015; results from the JDRS-IE were presented at the Association of Sign Language Interpreter's conference in Newcastle, England, U.K. and at the Conference of Interpreter Trainers in Lexington, Kentucky, USA in 2016.

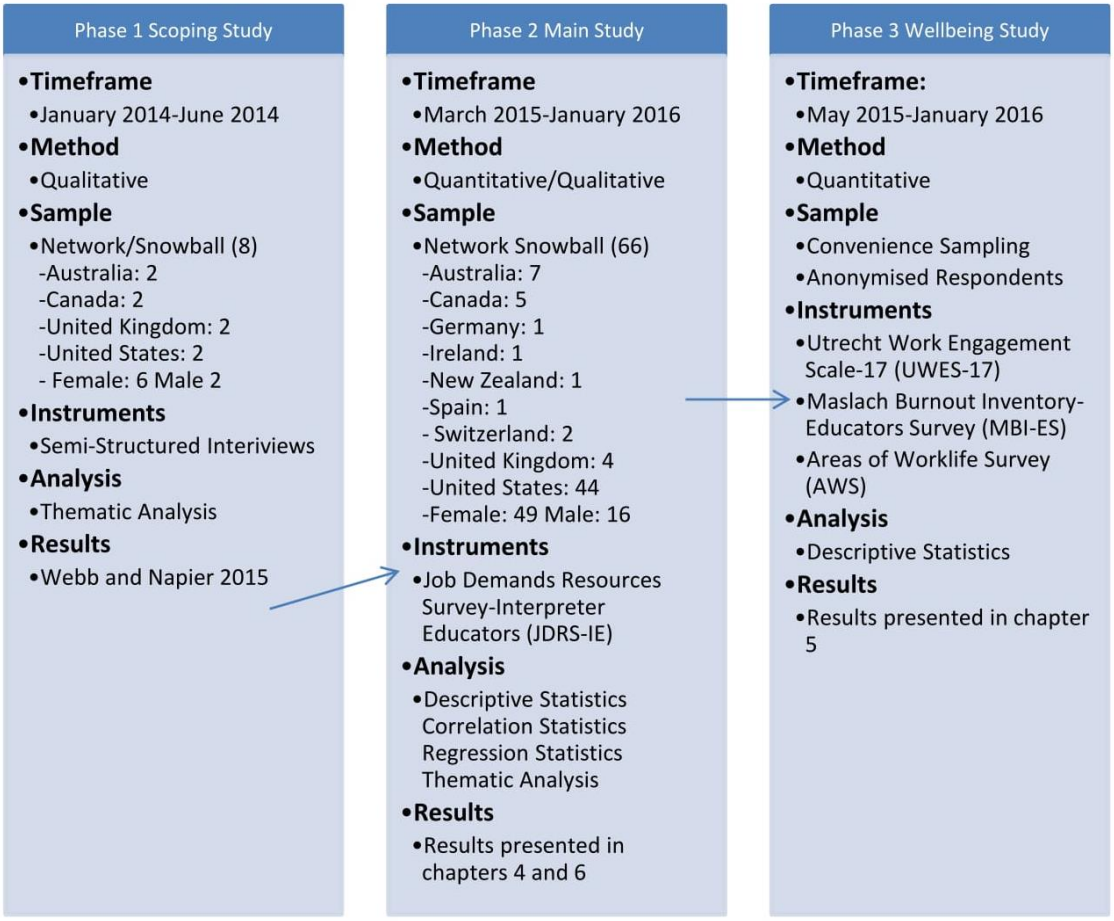

Figure 3.1 Visual Presentation of Research Design

3.4 Research Methods

This study consists of three data generation phases: 1) Scoping study; 2) Main study; and 3) Wellbeing. A description of each phase is outlined in Figure 3.2.

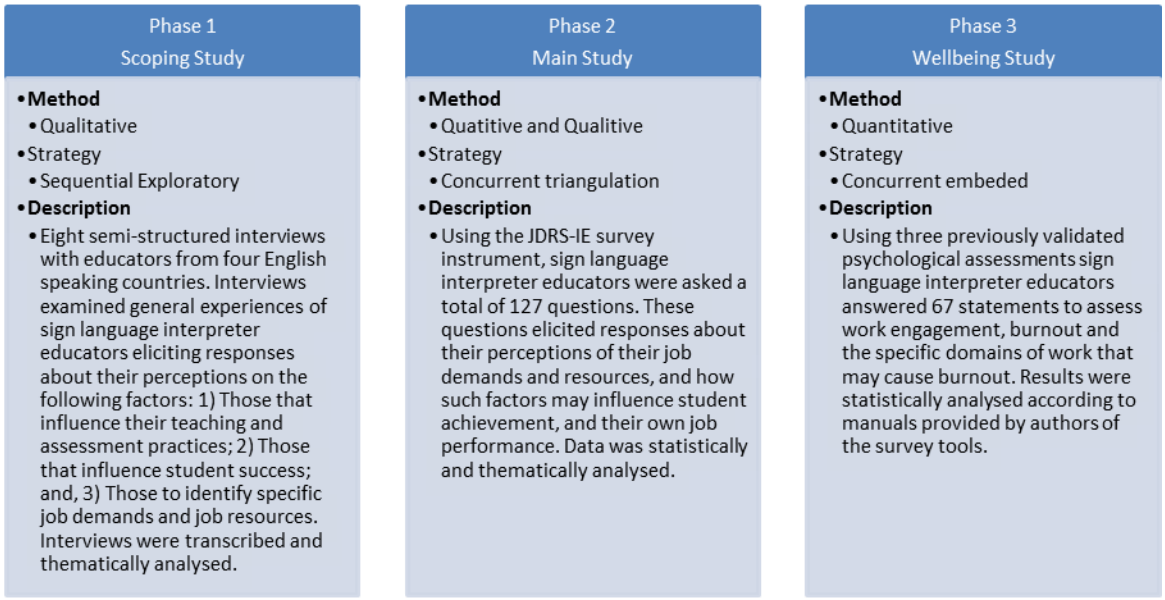

Figure 3.2: 3 Phases and descriptions of Research Methods

The research process was guided by three strategies: The sequential exploratory strategy[32] (Creswell 2009; Terrell 2012) was used for Phase 1. The initial scoping study collected qualitative data to explore general experiences from sign language interpreter educators regarding their work, and their perspectives on the readiness to work gap (RWG) faced by graduates. The data analysis from Phase 1 formed the development of the JDRS-IE which was distributed to a larger sample in Phase 2. Within Phase 2, the main study, the concurrent triangulation strategy (Creswell 2009) was used where the JDRS-IE generated both quantitative and qualitative data. This phase integrated[33] quantitative and qualitative approaches by quantifying the qualitative themes to be computed statistically (e.g. job demands from most demanding to least demanding), while also allowing respondents to elaborate on experiences in comment boxes for further qualitative analysis. Quantitative results for the JDRS-IE are presented in Chapter 4 and qualitative results Chapter 6. The concurrent embedded strategy[34] was employed in Phase 3 in a smaller connected study[35].

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[32] Terrell (2012, p.264) describes sequential exploratory strategy "as the collection and analysis of qualitative data followed by the collection and analysis of quantitative data".

[33] Creswell (2009) explains integrated data mixing is when quantitative and qualitative data are collected concurrently, and qualitative themes can be turned into counts.

[34] Creswell (2009) describes an embedded strategy to be when data serves as a secondary form of data to support a larger research study.

[35] The data was connected to the second phase of research, as those within the JDRS-IE sample were the only ones invited to participate in the study.

Within Phase 3, previously established wellbeing/burnout survey tools were used with a smaller sample than Phase 2. Due to the smaller sample, Phase 3 was given less priority (or weighting), yet was primarily useful in contextualising and understanding the results from Phase 2, providing some basic understanding of the health and wellbeing of sign language interpreter educators. Phase 1 was built to explore research question one, Phase 2 answers aspects of each of the research questions and Phase 3 only aims to answer the third research question (see research questions in Chapter 2, section 2.8).

3.5 Phase 1-Scoping Study

This section summarises the methods used in the initial scoping study. The initial scoping study explored views of eight sign language interpreter educators across four countries: Australia (n=2), Canada (n=2), the U.K. (n=2), and the U.S (n=2). These countries were selected for two main reasons: 1) their similar professional trajectories, and 2) I could conduct interviews in a common language (English or American Sign Language and my supervisors could assist me in BSL or Auslan if there was a need). Participants were invited to the study through network sampling methods (Hale and Napier 2013). Data were collected through semi-structured interviews Berg (2011); interviews were then transcribed into NVivo software and analysed for themes and subthemes (Aronson 1995). The interviews were scheduled for 90-minutes and included eleven questions to elicit perceptions from participants regarding the three major factors: 1) Those that influence their teaching and assessment practices; 2) Those that influence student success; and, 3) Those to identify specific job demands and job resources. Additionally, participants completed a background questionnaire and were asked questions during the interview to contextualise the landscape of the higher education institution and programme in which they work (e.g. hiring processes, funding allocation, and performance evaluation). The interview instrument is provided in Appendix A and background information sheet is provided in Appendix B.

Participants were informed of the scope of the study prior to interviews; however, to avoid biased responses, questions were not provided in advance. The thematic analysis incorporated a six stage process described by Braun and Clarke (2006). They are as follows: 1) Familiarization with data; 2) Generation of initial codes; 3) Search for themes among codes; 4) Review of themes; 5) Defining and naming themes; 6) Producing the final report. Results from this study were disseminated via publication in the *International Journal of*

Interpreter Education (Webb and Napier 2015) and briefly described in Chapter 4 (section 4.1).

3.6 Phase 2-Job Demands Resources Survey-Interpreter Educators Study

Using the themes that emerged from the scoping study (see: Chapter 4, Section 4.1 and Webb and Napier 2015), the Job Demands Resources Survey-Interpreter Educators (JDRS-IE) was created to better understand sign language interpreter educators work experiences, particularly their perceptions of their job demands and job resources and how they perceive such experiences to impact student-learning outcomes specifically job readiness. This section will explore recruitment of participants, the participant sample, and the JDRS-IE instrument that was designed to generate quantitative and qualitative data.

3.6.1 Recruitment of Participants

Hale and Napier (2013) describe network/snowball sampling methods as useful methods for interpreting studies research. This approach allows for researchers to use their networks to extend the reach of their study beyond their personal connections (Goodman 1961; Berg 2009; Hale and Napier 2013). As the profession of sign language interpreting is still developing (Gibson 1989; Bontempo 2013), the population of sign language interpreter educators is small. Therefore, it was determined this sampling method to be the most appropriate and was used to conduct this study. Using my supervisors and my own personal and professional networks, the research study was explained and widely distributed to networks of sign language interpreters and educators via email and social media sites (i.e. Facebook, LinkedIn, and Twitter).

YouTube videos were created in American Sign Language, British Sign Language, and International Sign[36] to provide an overview of research aims in hopes of extending the reach and increasing the number of potential respondents. Each message, and video distributed included the link of the survey. ASL, BSL, and International Sign were used to describe the research to participants in addition to all of the English posts. This was done for the following reasons: 1) American Sign Language would be able to reach individuals in Canada

[36] McKee and Napier (2002, p.14) describe International Sign as "including extensive use of location and direction for verb agreement, reference and cohesion; non-manual marking of clauses and adverbial morphology; use of classifiers; selection of more iconic signs and gestures; paraphrasing of lexical items; referential-shifting incorporating pantomime". Due to its use to communicate to deaf people transnationally, it was used as a tool to extend the reach of the JDRS-IE to interpreter educators outside of my personal networks.

and the U.S.; 2) British Sign Language would be able to reach individuals across the U.K., as well as Australia[37]; 3) These four countries were originally included within the scoping study, which informed the development of the JDRS-IE. 4) A video in international sign was also created and distributed to reach educators across Europe who may not know ASL or BSL. Although all survey instruments used throughout this study were not translated into sign language, and only provided in English, it was hoped that distributing introductory videos in sign language would recruit more study participants.

Using information from the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID), the professional body of sign language interpreters within the U.S., a spreadsheet of 160 contacts listed as connected with sign language interpreter education programmes across the United States was created. This created a network of 160 points of contact to connect to via email for the purposes of inviting them to participate in, as well as help distribute the questionnaire. 48 of these emails "failed to send." In addition to the networks from RID, ten sign language interpreter educators throughout Europe were contacted directly via email. They were identified by an Internet search to find sign language interpreter education programmes. These individuals were also asked to participate in, and distribute the questionnaire to their colleagues. Emails were also sent directly to the Conference of Interpreter Trainers (CIT), European Forum of Sign Language Interpreters (EFSLI), and the Interpreter Trainers Network (ITN). These emails requested organisations to distribute questionnaire information to their memberships. CIT and ITN distributed the questionnaire to their members via email. EFSLI declined to email their membership however, they did post and share links to the questionnaire via their social media sites (e.g. Twitter).

Wilson et al. (2012) describe Facebook as a social sphere providing researchers an opportunity to observe behaviour, test hypotheses, and recruit participants from many countries and demographic groups. The questionnaire was distributed to my personal Facebook page, as 120 personal contacts are either sign language interpreters and/or sign language interpreter educators. A total of 26 status updates were made regarding the research on my personal Facebook page and 29 people shared these updates. Additionally, some people created their own status updates and shared the research with their networks

[37] There is thought to be approximately a 70% overlap in the lexicon of BSL and Auslan (Australian Sign Language) (Schembri and Johnston 2007).

(e.g. four people tagged me in status updates distributing the link to the JDRS-IE during the four-week time frame the questionnaire was open).

LinkedIn is a professional social network with 300 million members in over 200 countries (LinkedIn, 2015). I have over 500 professional connections on LinkedIn, many of whom are professionally connected to sign language interpreting. Questionnaire information was sent out as an update on LinkedIn which was shared with professional connections, as well as distributed in groups related to sign language interpreting and sign language interpreter education, and to a more general group related to teaching and learning - members from a variety of disciplines. Group posts included Adjunct Faculty Teaching for Success in Higher Education, American Sign Language Practice and Support, Sign Language Interpreting Mentors, and Higher Education Teaching and Learning.

Twitter is a social networking tool used to extend the reach of this survey globally. During the time of the questionnaire launch, I had 250 twitter followers, many of whom are connected to the interpreting profession. To help narrow the reach, hashtags were used in front of key words to categorise the tweets. For example, #SignLanguage, #Interpreter, #Educator, #SLI, #ITP etc. I also sent out a total of 63 tweets which included tweets specifically directed to individuals and organisations affiliated with sign language, sign language interpreting, and sign language interpreter education (e.g. @DCAL_UCL, @EFSLI). Tweets were 'favorited' and 'retweeted' aiding in extending the reach of the questionnaire. Twitter has an activity dashboard allowing users to learn more about their tweets. Of the 63 original tweets regarding this research, I documented impressions, link clicks, retweets and total engagement as follows:

- Impressions: 10,131
- Link Clicks: 39
- Retweets 28
- Favourites: 14
- Total Engagement: 268

Overall the questionnaire was clicked on 1,785 times. The majority of these individuals did not make it past the demographics section on page four. This may be due to the use of social networking sites that publicly shared research information to people beyond the scope of this study, and people merely curious about the research may have clicked on the links. As

described in Chapter 8, section 8.1, SLIEs expressed difficulty with the Bristol Online Survey system and it is possible others had similar challenges with the software and did not report it and ultimately did not complete the survey. Additionally, 84 SLIEs continued through the questionnaire to pages after the demographics, but did not complete it.

3.6.2 Participant Sample

The total number of the sample was 66 with participants representing nine countries. Sample information is provided in Table 3.1. Although this questionnaire attempted to reach as many sign language interpreter educators as possible, the fact that the questionnaire was only available in English limited participation to only those who felt comfortable enough to participate using the English language. Therefore, it cannot capture the experiences of sign language interpreter educators who do not have English as a language or do not feel comfortable participating in research surveys using English. The questionnaire was targeted at countries with English as a dominant language, such as the countries included in the scoping study (Australia, Canada, U.K., and U.S.). However, the questionnaire welcomed the participation of sign language interpreter educators from outside those countries through broad recruitment and self-selection.

Country	Number of Participants
Australia	7
Canada	5
Germany	1
Ireland	1
New Zealand	1
Spain	1
Switzerland	2
United Kingdom	4
United States of America	44
Total	**66**

Table 3.1: Participants by Country

Of these SLIEs, 75.4% were female. The SLIEs had between 3 and 25 years of teaching experience, with an average of 14.5 years. Additionally, of these SLIEs, 52 identified as hearing, 11 as deaf and 3 preferred to be identified as something other than deaf or hearing (but did not provide details as to how they identify themselves). While it is recognised that more demographic information may be considered beneficial, the selection of details presented in this thesis reflected the critical consideration of the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants (see section 3.2). Due to the small nature of the fields of sign

language interpreting and sign language interpreter education, providing certain demographic details would make participants easily identifiable, especially in relation to country. For example, at the time of this study there was only one programme in Ireland and only three higher education institutions offering sign language interpreting in the U.K. While these programmes may employ more than one educator, the inclusion of information such as gender, age, and years of teaching experience would render individuals easily identifiable and thus violate anonymity and break confidentiality. Although the sample did not reach saturation, which my supervisors and I estimated as 300, the proportional response rate is reasonable as there are more sign language interpreter educators across the U.S.—where there are over 150 sign language interpreter education programmes—than in other nations. Additionally, given that the field is female dominated (Bontempo and Napier 2007), this sample offers an accurate proportional representation of gender within sign language interpreter education. The response rate can thus be considered robust and seen as a first step towards better understanding work experiences of sign language interpreter educators. It must be noted, however, that the high percentage of American responses could skew the results to more strongly represent the perspectives of sign language interpreter educators working in the U.S. This situation points to the critical need for future studies that investigate sign language interpreter educators' experiences outside the U.S.

3.6.3 The Phase 2-JDRS-IE Instrument

Results from the scoping study (Webb and Napier 2015), were used to create the JDRS-IE. Therefore, the JDRS-IE aimed to further explore previously identified categories of job demands and job resources. Job demand categories include: 1) Expectations; 2) External; 3) Higher Education Constraints; 4) Personal; and 5) Workload. Job resource categories include: 1) Administration/Management; 2) Classroom/Teaching Materials; 3) Programme components; 4) Facilities; 5) Financial Resources; 6) Human Resources; 7) Motivation; 8) Professional Development; 9) Support; and 10) Time.

The JDRS-IE comprises of 127 questions including a mix of closed-ended questions, where the answers were predetermined on a Likert scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree); ranking questions, to see which job demands were perceived as most demanding; and open-ended comment boxes where SLIEs could elaborate on their answers to the closed questions. Although closed questions have been said to limit discovery as they are primarily focused on the researcher's agenda (O'Cathain and Thomas 2004), considering the JDRS-IE was

constructed based on results from the scoping study, the questions and the possible answers were carefully selected to expand on findings from the original data.

The aforementioned open-ended comment boxes were incorporated to support the qualitative aspect of the study. By including a qualitative component, I intended to understand the "what" and the "why" behind the quantitative data in order to gain a deeper understanding of sign language interpreter educators work experiences and perspectives. While Morse (2003) asserts unsolicited comments in a questionnaire are a sign that the designer did not ask the right questions, O'Cathain and Thomas (2004) suggest solicited comment boxes can provide opportunities for researchers to listen to respondents and readdress the power balance between researcher and respondent (O'Cathain and Thomas 2004). Therefore, I included spaces for respondent comments throughout the JDRS-IE for the purposes of gaining a more complete understanding of the constructs under study. This further helped to ensure essential issues were not overlooked, and to further contextualise the findings for purposes of content validity (O'Cathain and Thomas 2004). Table 3.2 includes examples of the questions included in the JRDS-IE.

Question Type	Example Question
Likert Scale:	Please respond to the statements by selecting strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree, strongly disagree: • I effectively manage my work demands. • My workload negatively impacts the quality and relevance of the curriculum. • I have enough contact hours with students to cover course curriculum.
Ranking	Major job-demand categories have been identified for sign language interpreter educators. Please rank the following job-demand categories from most demanding (1) to least demanding (5). If you feel a category is equally demanding you may rank it equally. If you do not perceive this category as a job demand, please select N/A. • Expectations (defined as the expectations you have of yourself or others have on you) • External (defined as the demands placed on you by stakeholders outside the higher education institution such as the deaf community, interpreting community, or other professional organisations) • Higher education institution constraints (defined as the organisational structures and

Question Type	Example Question
	policies that frame the work environment) • Personal (defined as the commitments you have outside of work) • Workload (defined as the specific job tasks you manage on a day-today basis)
Open Ended	Please share any comments you have regarding your experiences with the identified job demand categories

Table 3.2: Example Questions Included in the JRDS-IE

In addition to the example questions presented in Table 3.2, a complete list of questions included in the JDRS-IE is provided in Appendix C. Furthermore, prior to sending out the JDRS-IE to sign language interpreter educators, the survey instrument itself was piloted and is described in subsection 3.5.4

3.6.4 Pilot of JDRS-IE

Considering the JDRS-IE was a new instrument, and had never been used before, an initial pilot was conducted in order to assess the feasibility and processes of the JDRS-IE in hopes to enhance the likeness of its success (Rattray and Jones 2007). Therefore, prior to formally distributing the JDRS-IE, ten people were asked to partake in its trial, which was completed by five people. Pilot participants included my primary and one secondary supervisor, and three PhD students within the Languages and Intercultural Studies department at Heriot-Watt University. They were asked to gauge how long it would take to respond to the questionnaire and look for any wording that may be ambiguous or confusing. Adjustments were then made based on the feedback provided.

3.6.5 Administration of the JDRS-IE

The JDRS-IE was designed and administered using the Bristol Online Survey (BOS) software, an online tool designed to support academic research, education and public sector organisations in development, distribution, and analysis of surveys. There are several benefits of using an online questionnaire when conducting social research. For example, the use of questionnaires increases access to populations of people with common characteristics in a short amount of time. This is despite possibly being separated by great geographic distances (Bachmann et al. 1996; Garton et al. 1999; Yun and Trumbo 2000). The scope of this research aimed to include participants from several countries, therefore using a questionnaire made this possibility the most feasible. An added advantage of self-

administered questionnaires is respondents can complete the questionnaire when it suits them. BOS has an additional feature where respondents can start and stop the questionnaire at any time and this was taken into consideration when developing such a lengthy questionnaire. However, this feature appeared to malfunction and the technical fault may have negatively affected completion rates. This is further discussed in Chapter 8, section 8.1.2.

Using cross-sectional surveying methods, the questionnaire was distributed for an identified period of time (Rindfleisch et al. 2008). The JDRS-IE questionnaire was originally open for three-weeks from its launch. This timeframe was selected to maximise reach, using emails and social media tools. Based on feedback received from participants who piloted the questionnaire prior to its launch, it was estimated it would take approximately 45-minutes to complete. Participants were informed of the 45-minute timeframe at prior to starting, as length of time to complete surveys has been shown to effect participation rates (Galesic and Bosnjak 2009). When the initial three-weeks ended, six potential SLIEs reached out requesting that I reopen the JDRS-IE for one additional week. This request was accommodated. During this time, three more SLIEs completed the questionnaire and in the end, the questionnaire was open for one-month.

Upon conclusion of the JDRS-IE, SLIEs were invited to participate in the third phase of the research, which aimed to explore the overall wellbeing of the SLIEs by using three already established and validated survey instruments. Phase 2 participants who agreed to participate in Phase 3 were asked to create a unique identifier code they would remember to be able to later access phase 3 instruments. To create this code, they were requested to provide a four-digit number, their favourite colour and the two last letters of their surname. The example provided to them was 1894PurpleBB. This unique identifier provided SLIEs access to the follow-up questionnaire. This ensured only participants who completed Phase 2 could access Phase 3 instruments. Additionally, the unique identifier was also intended to be used for cross tabulation across survey instruments during analysis further explained in section 3.6.

3.7 Phase 3-Wellbeing Study

Three previously established and validated survey instruments utilised for the wellbeing study. These instruments include: 1) Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-17 (UWES-17), 2) Maslach Burnout Inventory Educators Survey (MBI-ES) and 3) Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS). Of the 66 participants from the JDRS-IE, by way of convenience sampling, 40 sign

language interpreter educators (SLIEs) agreed to participate in the third phase of research on wellbeing. However, a total of 28 SLIEs completed all three-survey instruments. Personal emails and apologies were emailed to me by some of the SLIEs who had originally opted in to participate in Phase 3 of the study to inform me that they were unable to participate due to other pressing work commitments. Phase 3 did not collect any demographic data. Although there was a code created in the JDRS-IE to be used for participants to access Phase 3, and for me to be able to cross tabulate results across surveys due to the small sample size cross tabulation was not conducted. Although these are three separate survey instruments which can be distributed independently of each other, they were distributed as part of one larger survey using services provided through Mind Garden Inc., an independent publisher of psychological assessments and instruments in leadership, self-esteem, anxiety, and burnout. By using this service, all of the instruments were in one place and a consent form and identifier was added. Therefore, this single survey comprised all three instruments, which included a total of sixty-seven statements (17 UWES, 22 MBI-ES, and 28 AWS). These statements were related to 12 subscale domains (UWES: vigour, dedication, and absorption; MBI-ES: Emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishments; and AWS: workload control, reward, community, fairness and value). Although the MBI-ES is accepted as a way to measure both burnout and wellbeing, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) argue it is not plausible both concepts are negatively correlated and thus they should not both be measured by the same questionnaire. For example, they make two distinct points, first, that when employees are not experiencing burnout it does not necessarily mean that they are engaged in their work; and second, when employees do not exhibit signs of work engagement, it does not necessarily mean that they are experiencing burnout (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). This argument supports using both the MBI-ES and the UWES-17 in one study. Further, the AWS allows us to see which domains at work may contribute to one's feeling of engagement or burnout, thus making the use of all three surveys a comprehensive approach to understanding the overall wellbeing of sign language interpreter educators' experiences within this study.

3.8 Phase 3-Instruments

Three previously validated psychological assessment tools were used to better understand the overall wellbeing of sign language interpreter educators. These instruments are provided in Appendix D and are briefly described in sections 3.7.1-3.7.3.

3.8.1 Utrecht Work Engagement Survey Scale-17

Developed in 1999, the Utrecht Work Engagement Survey Scale (UWES) consists of 17 items in a 7-point Likert format. It explores work and wellbeing through a self-report questionnaire that measures three dimensions of wellbeing a worker feels while at work. These dimensions of wellbeing include vigour, dedication, and absorption and are used to measure work engagement. Psychometric analyses have been carried out to provide validity and reliability to the instrument (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), the UWES has been tested to be internally consistent, stable across time, invariant across international samples, and negatively related to burnout. UWES-17 measures vigour through six statements relating to resilience, level of energy, effort, investment, and persistence. High vigour scores relate to high levels of energy, zest, and stamina relating to work (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). Dedication is measured through five statements relating to the sense of significance from work and feeling proud, enthusiastic, and inspired. High dedication scores are related to dedication to work that is seen as meaningful, challenging, and inspiring (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). Finally absorption is measured through six statements relating to being happily immersed in one's work. High absorption scores indicate employees are happily engrossed in work and have difficulty detaching from it (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). To see all of the statements included in the UWES-17 tool, refer to Appendix D, however an example of a statement from each subscale is provided in Table 3.3.

Question Type	Example Question
Vigour	At my work, I feel bursting with energy
Dedication	My job inspires me
Absorption	Time flies when I'm working

Table 3.3: Example Questions from the UWES-17

3.8.2 Maslach Burnout Inventory- Educators Survey

The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) was adapted from two earlier instruments specifically for educational professionals. The original instrument is the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), which was adapted for human services professionals as the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS). It was later modified to assess burnout of educational professionals in school settings as the MBI-ES. All three tools use the same three burnout subscales: 1) Emotional Exhaustion, 2) Depersonalisation, and 3) Personal Accomplishment. Some items have been modified from the MBI-HSS. For

instance, the word *recipient* has been changed to *student.* Maslach et al. (1996) confirm the instruments' validity and reliability. The MBI-ES measures emotional exhaustion through nine statements relating to feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by work. Depersonalisation is measured through five statements relating to feelings of one's work being important. Finally, personal accomplishment is measured through eight statements relating to feelings of competence and success relating to one's work.

Burnout is viewed as a continuous variable and does not indicate either one is burnt out or not. Rather results of the MBI-ES convey whether or not employees' are experiencing a high, average, or low degree of burnout. For example, if results indicate a high degree of burnout, respondents will show a high score of emotional exhaustion and personalization with low scores of personal accomplishment. However, if respondent scores are low on emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, but have high scores of personal accomplishment, they are expected to have a low degree of burnout. Respondents are asked "How often" statements, and can respond with never, once a month or less, a few times a month, once a week, a few times a week or every day. While an example of a statement from each subscale is provided in Table 3.4, a list of all statements is provided in Appendix D.

Question Type	Example Question
Emotional Exhaustion	I feel emotionally drained at work
Depersonalisation	I don't really care what happens to some students
Personal Accomplishment	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job

Table 3.4: Example Questions from the MBI-ES

3.8.3 Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS)

The third instrument used to understand wellbeing and burnout was the Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS). The AWS assesses organisational risk factors associated with burnout focusing on the contentious relationship between individuals and their environment. This misalignment is an imbalance of job-person fit. Leiter and Maslach (2011) review the correlations of burnout and job stress identifying six domains: 1) workload; 2) control; 3) reward; 4) community; 5) fairness; and 6) values. These domains have been supported by literature and have undergone psychometric analysis to provide validity and reliability of the instrument (Leiter and Maslach 2011). The AWS comprises 28 items that produce scores in the six domains. The AWS instrument measures workload through statements relating to the amount of work to be completed and the time one has to complete it. Control is measured by

statements that relate to the opportunity one has to make choices and solve problems. Reward statements relate to being/feeling recognised, either financially or otherwise, for work contributions. Community is measured by statements relating to the quality of the social environment, such as support, positive feelings and collaboration. Fairness is measured through statements relating to the consistency and equitability of the organisational rules, including how resources are allocated. The final domain, value, is measured through statements relating to what is important to the organisation and its members. Not all domains have the same number of statements - control, reward, and value each have four statements, workload and community have each have five statements, and fairness is measured by six statements. Table 3.5 has been recreated from Leiter and Maslach (2011 p. 8) to describe each area examined in the AWS.

Category	Description
Workload	The amount of work to be done in a given time. A manageable workload provides the opportunity to do what one enjoys, to pursue career objectives, and to develop professionally. A crisis in workload is not a matter of simply stretching to meet a new challenge, but of going beyond human limits. Sample Item: *I do not have time to do the work that must be done.*
Control	The opportunity to make choices and decisions, to solve problems, and to contribute to the fulfilment of responsibilities. A good match occurs when there is a correspondence between control and accountability. A mismatch occurs when people lack sufficient control to fulfil the responsibilities for which they are accountable. Sample Item: *I have control over how I do my work.*
Reward	Recognition—financial and social—for contributions on the job. A meaningful reward system acknowledges contributions to work and provides clear indications of what the organisation values. People experience a lack of recognition as developing their work and themselves. Sample Item: *I receive recognition from others for my work.*
Community	The quality of an organisation's social environment. People thrive in communities characterised by support, collaboration, and positive feelings. Mismatches occur when there is no sense of positive connection with others at work. Sample Item: *People trust one another to fulfil their roles.*
Fairness	The extent to which the organisation has consistent and equitable rules for everyone. An important element is the extent to which resources are allocated according to generally understood and consistent procedures. Fairness communicates respect for the members of an organisation's community. A lack of fairness indicates confusion in an organisation's values and in its relationships with people. Sample Item: *Resources are allocated fairly here.*
Values	Values are what are important to the organisation and to its members.

Category	Description
	When organisational and personal values are congruent, and successes are shared. Mismatches occur when differences exist between an organisation's values and the values of its staff, or if the organisation does not practice its stated values. Sample Item: *My values and the organisation's values are alike.*

Table 3.5: AWS Domains

In addition to table 3.5, all statements included in the AWS are provided in Appendix D. In summary, the tools described in sections 3.5-3.7 were used to highlight the experiences of sign language interpreter educators and answer the four guiding research questions related to job demands, job resources, overall health and wellbeing, along with how such experiences impact student learning outcomes and graduate readiness. The JDRS-IE was developed in consideration of JD-R theory as well as the themes that emerged during Phase 1. Additionally, previous research studies that have applied the job demands resource model (see: Chapter 2, section 2.7) have used UWES-17, MBI-ES and AWS to understand the wellbeing of study participants; yet, these tools have not previously been used with sign language interpreter educators. It is also important to note that each of these instruments are assessing different aspects of wellbeing in terms of work engagement and burnout. To elaborate on this it is important to note that the UWES-17 solely examines work engagement, while the MBI-ES explores burnout. While the MBI-ES considers burnout and engagement on an equal continuum, I adhere to Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) stance that these concepts are independent states of being; one can experience feelings of burnout while still being engaged in one's work. Furthermore, by employing the AWS, we are able to add to the complexity of our understanding of wellbeing by looking specifically at the nuances and domains of work life that could influence feelings of burnout. Therefore it is relevant to this study to use all three instruments. Section 3.8 describes the quantitative and qualitative analyses that were conducted on the JDRS-IE, UWES-17, MBI-ES and the AWS.

3.9 Analyses

Qualitative and quantitative analyses were conducted throughout this multiphase research study. Initially, the scoping study (Webb and Napier 2015) - a qualitative study that included eight semi-structured interviews used thematic analysis (Boyatzis 1998; Braun and Clarke 2006) to identify themes to explore further in the major study. These themes were then incorporated into the JDRS-IE and analysed using statistical analysis and thematic analysis.

Further, in order to understand the general wellbeing of sign language interpreter educators, the UWES-17, MBI-ES and AWS were scored and analysed following the guidelines set forth by their authors. The following sections explain the types of analyses conducted on each of the tools used in this study.

3.9.1 Job Demands Resources Survey-Interpreter Educators Analysis

Within Phase 2, for the study using the Job demands Resources Survey-Interpreter Educators (JDRS-IE), a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques were used to triangulate the data. This is especially important because the JDRS-IE was developed solely for this research study and had not been previously used. The quantitative analysis included three statistical approaches including analysis of descriptive statistics[38], correlation results[39], and regression models[40]. While the qualitative analysis was conducted through a thematic analysis[41] of the comments directly associated with survey questions. Robson (1993) assumes researchers within the social sciences will seek help and advice in carrying out quantitative data analysis due to the complexity and specialised nature. Therefore, due to the substantial amount of quantitative data collected during this research, Dr. Bright, an Associate Scientist at the University of Mississippi, an expert in social science research who has extensive experience in survey research, including qualitative and quantitative data analysis, assisted in the statistical components of this research. In order to complete the overall data analysis of the JDRS-IE the following steps were taken: 1) Develop/list testable hypotheses from the research and available data; 2) Quantitative Analysis: Multiple regression analysis, correlation statistics; 3) Code questionnaire data from statistical analysis; 4) Develop an index measure for question 25; 5) Review statistical output for meaning; 6) Qualitative analysis including a thematic analysis.

Prior to entering the data into the statistical Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), several days were spent examining the raw data. During this time, data was read, summarised and questions were organised into categories. Additionally, notes were made on

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[38] *Descriptive statistics* are numbers used to summarize and describe data. They include the mean, median and mode as well as provide standard development.

[39] *Correlation Statistics* examine the relationships between two variables.

[40] *Regression Models* look at the relationship between a dependent variable and a more than one independent variable.

[41] Braun and Clarke (2006) describe thematic analysis as a 6 step process including 1) Familiarization with the data 2) Generation of initial codes 3) search for themes among codes 4) Review themes 5) Define and name themes and 6) Produce final report.

any possible patterns or contradictory answers from the respondents. The data were then cleaned and coded for analysis to prepare for their input into SPSS.

The original data set included 66 SLIEs (analysed as rows of data) with 372 variables (recorded as columns). The data were re-coded in numerals for statistical analysis and to allow the data to be imported into SPSS. After the data were coded, 215 variables remained for analysis as some columns were collapsed in the cleaning and coding stages. Specifically, variables/columns were dropped for the following reasons: 1) Open-ended questions were suitable for qualitative analysis, but cannot be used in the regression analysis; 2) Cells that did not include data (e.g. question directions and columns that were used for "other, please specify" answers that were used to inform coding, but did not stand alone as the variable).

The data were coded to a numerical format based on the existing format of the data. Variables are generally categorical/nominal, ordinal, or interval. Categorical variables, also referred to as nominal variables, can be included in more than one category, but there is not an intrinsic order to the categories (Sirkin 2005). Gender and country of residence are examples of categorical variables. Ordinal variables also have more than one category, but the order of the categories has meaning. For example, degree level could have been put in a more meaningful order (Associates, Bachelors, and PhD). Interval variables are similar to ordinal variables, but the spacing between them is purposeful. For example, when seeking information about years of teaching experience options were provided in a 5 year span (e.g. 0, 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, and 16-20). All cells were then re-coded in numerals and a codebook was created to assist with the analysis. To record the coding process, a codebook was used to indicate the data transformation process and was referred to throughout the analysis process. The codebook also reveals that variables were renamed for the purpose of analysis into one-word labels. The codebook is presented in Appendix E.

Simple statistics and multiple regression statistics were used to estimate the relationships among the identified variables. To identify the variables of interest and to specify the statistical models, measurable hypotheses needed to be formulated about the relationship between the variables (Sykes 1993) that could be translated into regression models. Therefore, based on the findings from the scoping study, a review of the extant literature, initial exploration of the data, and with regard to the original research questions presented in Chapter 2 (section 2.8), a list of 17 two-tailed hypotheses was developed along with 13 questions to further explore. Two-tailed hypotheses aim to see if there are statistically

significant findings in either direction. These hypotheses and questions influenced the approach to the data analysis and guided the model specification. Additionally, questions from the JDRS-IE were indexed to identify which dependent and independent variables were appropriate for testing each hypothesis and informing the research questions.

Descriptive statistics are used to describe the mean and the standard deviation of questionnaire statements. In the JDRS-IE, descriptive statistics were provided for 12 categories: 1) Job Demands and Resources, 2) Workload, 3) Structure/Administration, 4) Administration, 5) Personal/Performance, 6) External Bodies, 7) Time, 8) Collaboration/ Support, 9) Human Resources, 10) Student Supports, 11) Work Readiness, and 12) Educator Overall Wellbeing. Next, correlation statistics were used to measure the degree to which two or more variables change together. Positive correlations indicate the extent to which those variables increase or decrease in parallel, whereas negative correlations indicate the extent to which one variable increases as the other decreases. Next, SPSS was used to calculate the Pearson correlation coefficient, also known as Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Pearson correlation coefficients can range from -1 (perfect negative correlation) to 1 (perfect positive correlation). If the correlation coefficient is zero then there would be no relationship at all. This correlation takes into consideration the sample size (n=66). When measuring the significance of a correlation, it does not necessarily mean the relationship makes sense or that one caused the other and vice versa. Therefore, each correlation must be examined to determine whether the correlation is logical or not.

In the initial correlation report significant and highly significant relationships were identified. However, not all of these were logical correlations. Therefore, each item identified as significant was reviewed to confirm its correlation as logical or not and if it was logical a correlation category was assigned to aid in its analysis. Essentially, all correlations presented in this research are both statistically significant and practically meaningful. In order to minimize potential researcher bias, conversations were held with Dr. Bright and doctoral supervisors on whether or not some of the correlations should be considered logical or not, which provided inter-rater reliability to the assessment of the statistics. These discussions helped ensure that logical correlations were not overlooked. Finally, SPSS was used to calculate regression outputs based on models developed to test the hypotheses that entailed multiple independent variables.

To guide the statistical processing, a list of hypothesis was created in order to better conceptualise the information and understand the relationships between variables. Dependent and independent variables were assigned to each hypothesis and are identified in Table 3.6.

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable
(H1) One's background has an influence on his/her ability to effectively manage his/her work demands.	Work demands	Background
(H2) One's background has an influence on his/her perception of resources.	Resources	Background
(H3) One's background has an influence on his/her perception of pressure and reputation.	Pressure & Reputation	Background
(H4) One's background influences his/her collaboration	Collaboration	Background
(H5) One's workload impacts student learning outcomes	Student-learning outcomes	Workload
(H6) One's resources impacts student learning outcomes	Student learning outcomes	Resources
(H7) One's continued PD and institutional service impacts his/her view of personal responsibility	Personal responsibility	Continued professional development and institutional service
(H8) One's satisfaction with the structure/administration impacts his/her sense of pressure to pass students to meet student number pressure	Student number pressure	Structure Administration
(H9) One's student number pressure, lack of resources, staffing concerns, and high work demands result in passing students who should not be passed	Passing students	Student number pressures, resources, work demands, staffing concerns
(H10) One's sense of personal responsibility decreases negativity regarding work demands and resources	Work demands and resources	Personal responsibility
(H11) One's availability of time impacts his/her student learning outcomes	Student learning outcomes	Time
(H12) One's background, student number pressure, lack of resources, staffing concerns, and high work demands impact how they see student learning as their primary responsibility	Student learning as responsibility	Student number pressures, resources, work demands, staffing concerns
(H13) One's background, student number pressure, lack of resources, staffing concerns, and high work demands impact if their students are ready to work	Student work readiness	Independent variables: student number pressures, resources, work

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable
		demands, staffing concerns
(H14) One's background, student number pressure, lack of resources, staffing concerns, and high work demands impact if their students are safe to practice	Students safe to practice	student number pressures, resources, work demands, staffing concerns
(H15) Being deaf impacts one's sense of personal responsibility	Personal responsibility	Identity (Deaf)
(H16) Being deaf impacts one's pressure and reputation	Pressure and reputation	Identity (deaf)
(H17) High workload results in students being passed that should have been held back.	Passing borderline students	Workload

Table 3.6: Independent and Dependent Variable Listing

As previously stated, variables were organised with a code name and the question numbers related to the variable were organised and provided in Table 3.7. To see a list of the questions (with their question number) see Appendix C.

Variable (SPSS Word)	Question Numbers
Work Demands (Workdem)	25.1, 25.2
Resources (Resources)	25.21, 25.32, 25.49, 25.31
Workload (Workload)	25.2, 25.3, 25.9, 25.10, 26.19, 26.35, 25.7
Student-learning outcomes (StudOut)	26.1, 25.47
Continuing Professional Development and Institutional Service (ContPD)	25.13, 25.48, 25.23, 25.17
Structure/Administration (Admin)	25.4, 25.36, 25.37, 26.6, 26.9, 26.10, 26.12, 26.26, 26.29
Student number requirements (PassStud)	25.8, 26.33, 26.5
Student number pressure (NumbPress)	25.33, 25.50
Personal responsibility (PersResp)	25.5, 25.14, 25.26, 25.39, 26.37
Pressure and reputation (PressReput)	25.6, 25.15, 25.38, 25.43
Time (Time)	25.11, 25.17, 25.19, 25.22, 25.25, 25.28, 25.28, 25.44
Collaboration (Collab)	25.30, 25.51, 25.53, 26.18, 25.17
Staffing concerns (Staff)	26.15, 26.30
Student support (StudSupp)	26.3, 26.8, 26.22, 26.13

Table 3.7: Code Name Associated Questions

Upon completion of the statistical calculations of the JDRS-IE, a qualitative thematic analysis was undertaken to understand the comments provided by the SLIEs and to add meaning to the statistical analysis. In order to ensure anonymity, all comments were extracted from the data and viewed in a separate file. Therefore, the qualitative analysis did not aim to associate data with respective demographics, but more so to enrich the understandings of the statistical findings and look for any new job demand/job resource themes that may have come to light with the larger sample size. Data was analysed and coded by themes using NVivo software. In addition to the JDRS-IE, the three wellbeing instruments were also analysed.

3.9.2 Wellbeing Analysis

Each of the instruments used to explore the SLIEs' wellbeing are previously validated instruments and used in several research studies (see: section 3.6). As previously stated, these instruments were licensed from Mind Garden Inc., an independent publisher of psychological assessment instruments, and included a manual developed by the authors for each instrument on how to score and understand the data.

3.9.3 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-17

The UWES-17 consists of three subscales: vigour, dedication, and absorption. Along with the three subscale scores, a total score is tabulated as an aggregate of the three scales. In order to find the means for each subscale, scores are added and divided by the sum of the items within the subscale involved. For example, the six scores of vigour are totalled and then divided by six. The total engagement score was found by a similar process adding up all of the total scores of the subscales and divided by the total number of items. Thus, there are four final scores of the UWES-17; the three subscale scores and a total score. Each of the sub-scale scores ranges from zero to six. In order to test statistical significance, a t-test[42] was also run. Further, following the guidelines of the UWES-17 psychological assessment (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003), five groupings were used: very low, low, average, high, and very high. As provided by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), the following scale can be used to interpret the means for the provided statements.

- 0 to .99 means once a year or less

[42] T-tests assess to see if the means from two groups are statistically different from each other.

- 1 to 1.99 means at least once year
- 2 to 2.99 means at least once a month
- 3 to 3.99 means at least a couple times a month
- 4 to 4.99 means at least once a week
- 5 to 6 means a couple of times per week or daily

Furthermore, the normative scores provide the reference to identify where the means are categorically and are illustrated in Table 3.8. According to Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) normative scores of the UWES -17 instrument, a mean vigour score of 4.43 is average, a mean dedication score of 4.89 average, and an absorption score of 4.56 is very high. After calculating the four scores of the UWES-17 for the survey respondents, the scores were compared to these normative scores for reference. The normative scores for the UWES-17 are presented in Table 3.8.

	Vigour	**Dedication**	**Absorption**	**Total**
Very Low	≤ 2.17	≤ 1.60	≤ 1.60	≤ 1.93
Low	2.18 – 3.20	1.61 – 3.00	1.61 – 2.75	1.94 – 3.06
Average	3.21 – 4.80	3.01 – 4.90	2.76 – 4.40	3.07 – 4.66
High	4.81 – 5.60	4.91 – 5.79	4.41 – 5.35	4.67 – 5.53
Very High	≥ 5.61	≥ 5.80	≥ 5.36	≥ 5.54
Mean	3.99	3.81	3.56	3.82
Standard Deviation	1.08	1.31	1.10	1.10
Standard Error	.01	.01	.01	.01
Range	.00 – 6.00	.00 – 6.00	.00 – 6.00	.00 – 6.00

Table 3.8: Normative Score for the UWES-17

3.9.4 Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey

The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) was adapted from the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to assess burnout of professionals working in educational settings. As previously stated, it uses the same subscales from the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS), including emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment. Thus the following scale was used to interpret the results:

- 0= Never
- 1= A few times a year or less
- 2= Once a month or less
- 3= A few times a month
- 4= Once a week

- 5= A few times a week
- 6= Every day

Based on normative distribution, Maslach et al. (1996) provide cut-off points for scores and the means and standard deviations for 11,067 respondents. Table 3.9 lists the range of experienced burnout and the data was used for reference in interpreting the survey results.

Range of Experienced Burnout			
MBI Subscales	Low (Lower 3rd)	Average (Middle 3rd)	High (Upper 3rd)
Overall Sample			
Emotional Exhaustion	≤16	17-26	≥27
Depersonalisation	≤8	9-13	≥14
Personal Accomplishments	≥30	31-36	≤37

Table 3.9: Range of Experienced Burnout (Reproduced from Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter 1996)

3.9.5 The Areas of Worklife Survey

The Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS) is the final instrument used in this research to examine burnout. This assessment examines organisational risk factors associated with burnout by statistically calculating relationships between individuals and aspects of their environment. These aspects are the six domains identified by Leiter and Maslach (2011) including; workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. Each domain has statements where respondents use a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree-5=strongly agree). Higher scores indicate higher levels of congruence and higher levels of congruence indicate that employees are less likely to experience burnout due to that specific domain. A score was calculated for each of the subscales. Each subscale holds a different meaning and therefore there is not one total score for AWS. Each item has a range of four, between one and five. According to Leiter and Maslach (2011), scores higher than three (indicating that respondents agree or strongly agree) are considered a "high score" and indicate a higher congruence between the respondents' preferences and his/her workplace (Leiter and Maslach 2011). Therefore, scores less than three (indicating that respondents disagree or strongly disagree) are considered a "low score" and indicate more incongruence between the respondents' preferences and his/her workplace. In order to calculate the subscales accurately, as directed by the manual, some scores were reversed based on their wording.

Normative measures of the subscale outputs are available (Leiter and Maslach 2011). The normative sample comes from work settings across several countries in North America, Europe and Asia. The work settings included in the sample are mostly hospital and university employees (Leiter and Maslach 2011). Sign language interpreters have been compared to nurses (Napier 2002) and therefore, using a tool where the normative sample predominately included educators and healthcare professionals is fitting. Cut-off points for the low (25th percentile), moderate (50th percentile), and high (75th percentile) (Leiter and Maslach (2011) are provided in Table 3.10 and will be referenced to interpret the survey data.

Category	25th Percentile	50th Percentile	75th Percentile
Workload	2.33	3.00	3.50
Control	2.67	3.33	4.00
Reward	2.75	3.25	3.80
Community	2.80	3.40	4.00
Fairness	2.33	2.83	3.33
Values	2.75	3.25	3.75

Table 3.10: Quartile Cut-Off Values for the AWS (Reproduced from Leiter and Maslach 2011)

Finally, the relationships between each of the measures were calculated within and across instruments using correlation statistics. Further, 2-tailed testing allowed for significance to be identified, where I could then assess the relationship between the scales and sub-scales.

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter detailed the design and methods used to conduct this research study. The research was shaped by the ontological and epistemological foundations of pragmatism to answer four primary research questions (see: section 3.1). To answer these questions, this study uses a mixed-methods research approach by combining quantitative and qualitative methods across three phases. The phases include: 1) the initial scoping study 2), the major study using the JDRS-IE and, 3) the well-being study using the UWES-17, MBI-ES and AWS. The subsequent three chapters will provide results of the research. In Chapter 4 quantitative analysis of the JDRS-IE is provided, Chapter 5 includes the quantitative analyses of the UWES-17, MBI-ES and the AWS and finally the qualitative thematic analysis of the JDRS-IE is contained in Chapter 6. The results from the scoping study are not discussed in this thesis, as they have been reported elsewhere (see: Webb and Napier, 2015). However, in Chapter 4, a very brief summary of the scoping study results is provided to contextualise the

results for the JDRS-IE study, as the questionnaire instrument was developed based on the scoping study's key findings.

Chapter 4-Quantitative Results of the Job Demand Resource Survey Interpreter Educators

This chapter provides quantitative analysis of the Job Demand Resource Survey-Interpreter Educators (JDRS-IE), which was a questionnaire instrument developed from the key findings of the scoping study. In order to contextualise the results from the JDRS-IE presented in this chapter, a brief summary of the results from the scoping study is presented in section 4.1.

4.1 Summary of Scoping Study Results

The findings from the initial scoping study (Phase 1 of this research) describe the experiences of eight sign language interpreter educators (Webb and Napier 2015). After conducting eight semi-structured interviews, a thematic analysis on the transcribed interview was completed. This analysis revealed five major job demand categories defined in Table 4.1, and ten major job resource categories defined in Table 4.2.

Job Demand	Definition
Expectations	Expectations placed on the educator internally or externally regarding their work performance
External	Demands placed on the educator by stakeholders outside the higher education institution such as the Deaf community, interpreting community or other professional organisations
Higher education institution (HEI) constraints	The organisational structures and policies that frame the teaching environment
Personal	Demands on individuals originating outside of the higher education institution, which may impinge on their work (e.g., family and continued education)
Workload	The specific job tasks sign language interpreter educators manage on a day-to-day basis

Table 4.1: Five Major Job Demand Categories (recreated from Webb and Napier 2015)

Job Resources	Definition
Administration/Management	Expertise, support and management style of the higher education institution
Classroom/Teaching materials	Books, videos, and technological equipment educators use to deliver courses
Program components	Curriculum
Facilities	Buildings, classrooms, labs, offices
Financial resources	Program-specific funding; salary
Human resources	Staffing
Motivation	Internal and external factors that keep the educators going
Professional Development	Feedback through appraisal and evaluation as well as training received through conference, seminar and workshop attendance
Support	Physical and emotional support the educators receive personally or professionally
Time	Time available to complete job tasks

Table 4.2: Ten Job Resource Categories and Definitions (recreated from Webb and Napier 2015)

Within this scoping study, sign language interpreter educators (SLIEs) expressed high job demands and low/limited resources. Additionally, exhaustion and stress emerged as themes throughout this study and some of them reported specifically experiencing feelings of burnout. However, participants were also passionate about their work, specifically about student learning and their relationships with deaf communities.

4.2 Job Demands Resources Survey-Interpreter Educators Results

The JDRS-IE was created on the basis of the results from the initial scoping study (see: Webb and Napier 2015) to further explore three of the four major research questions including:

1) What are the job demands influencing the work environment as perceived by sign language interpreter educators?

2) What job resources are considered essential by sign language interpreter educators and are they satisfied with such resources in managing their job demands?

3) As perceived by sign language interpreter educators, how do job demands and job resources influence their job performance and overall programme operations in relation to the readiness to work gap faced by programme graduates?

To do this effectively, the survey includes questions designed to understand the experiences of sign language interpreter educators (SLIEs) regarding their job demands and job

resources, including their perceptions of how those factors may impact their overall job performance and any possible links to student learning outcomes. The research question exploring interpreter educator wellbeing[43] was mainly explored during Phase 3 using previously designed and validated instruments (UWES-17, MBI-ES and AWS). A description of each of these tools can be found in Chapter 3 (section 3.8), and the results from these tools are outlined in Chapter 5. However, the JDRS-IE included a few questions relating to interpreter wellbeing, and statistical analyses of those questions are presented in subsection 4.3.12 of this chapter. Furthermore, the qualitative analysis, presented in Chapter 6, also highlights some of the experiences SLIEs have in relation to their overall wellbeing.

Three statistical approaches to analyse the data are used throughout this chapter. They include descriptive statistics, correlation statistics, and regression models and definitions are presented in Table 4.2.

Statistical Approaches	Definition
Descriptive Statistics	Numbers used to summarise and describe data. They include the mean, median and mode as well as provide standard Deviation.
Correlation Statistics	Examines the relationships between two variables
Regression Models	Looks at the relationship between a dependent variable and more than one independent variable.

Table 4.2: Ten Job Resource Categories and Definitions (recreated from Webb and Napier 2015)

These three approaches are used to describe, explain, and validate findings. Descriptive statistics are used to describe the data set in a manageable form, as they provide a general understanding as to what the data is and shows. However, there is no way to see what may be contributing to each factor or to possible relationships between variables within the dataset using descriptive statistics alone. Therefore, correlation statistics and regression models were used to measure relationships between variables. These relationships do not necessarily indicate a causal relationship (e.g. x caused y), but they do indicate a strong relationship between such variables, which can then be further determined as logical or illogical by the researcher. The results of the quantitative analysis were further explored through qualitative analysis methods, by way of thematic analysis (see: Chapter 6 for results). This chapter focuses on the results from the three-phase quantitative analysis of the JDRS-IE data and concludes with a summary of the statistical findings. The JDRS-IE was

[43] In consideration of sign language interpreter educator wellbeing, are sign language interpreter educators engaged in their work or burned out by their work?

organised into six parts: 1) Demographics; 2) Perceptions of job demands and job resources and their impacts; 3) Perceptions of student learning outcomes; 4) Ranking of job demands; 5) Ranking of job resources; and 6) Resource satisfaction. Demographics of the sample are described in Chapter 3, (section 3.6.2) and it's worth reemphasising that while the majority of the respondents are from the U.S., a there is a third of the sample represents other countries. The subsequent sections in this chapter then provide results for all other parts of the JDRS-IE.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics: Perceptions of Job Demands and Job Resources

The statements included in the section of the survey titled, *Perceptions of Job Demands and Job Resource*s were organised into twelve categories. The twelve categories include: 1) General Job Demand and Resources; 2) Workload; 3) Structure/Administration; 4) Administration; 5) Personal/Performance; 6) External Bodies; 7) Time; 8 Collaboration/Support; 9) Human Resources; 10) Student Supports; 11) Work Readiness; 12) Wellbeing. Survey statements within this section were organised by category and the mean and standard deviation were computed for each. When statements had overlapping categorical features they presented as a factor of more than one category.

The mean, or averages for the responses denote SLIEs' levels of agreement with each of the statements. Responses range from 'generally agree' to 'generally disagree'. The survey instrument scale was adapted for the purpose of analysis to account for the possibility of means falling between categories, while individual responses were limited to exact usage of the instrument scale. The terminology for answer responses used in the survey instrument scale deviates from what is presented in this section. For example, 'Strongly disagree' is quantified as -2, bearing in mind there was never a perfect -2, when exploring the aggregate the term 'generally disagree' is more appropriate. To organise each of the statements within the categories, a scale was created to distinguish between 'generally disagree to generally agree'. This scale is provided in the table 4.4.

Mean Range	Interpretations
1.01 to 2.00	Generally Agree
.51 to 1.00	Moderately Agree
-.50 to .50	Neutral
-.51 to -1.00	Moderately Disagree
-1.01 to -2.00	Generally Disagree

Table 4.4: Category Scale

After the mean for each statement was calculated they were then ranked in order of agreement within each category. Note, when a statement is presented at the top of the list, it does not indicate general agreement; rather, this placement shows that SLIEs agreed upon this statement more than the other statements in the same group. Therefore, the colour codes of the tables distinguish general agreement to general disagreement.

Mean Interpretation	Standard Deviation
Neutral:	High Standard Deviation 1.0-1.3
Neutral:	Very High Standard Deviation 1.3+

Chapter 4 Table 4.5: Standard Deviation Colour Coding

Standard deviations are presented alongside the means to show the level of consensus amongst the SLIEs. A high standard deviation means there is a great deal of variation (some strongly agree while some strongly disagree) and as so, less consensus among SLIEs. A standard deviation score of 0 means that there is perfect agreement amongst SLIEs. In the case of the JDRS-IE results, a *very high* standard deviation appears to be at 1.3 and above, and a *high* standard deviation appears to be between 1.0 and 1.29. To help distinguish between high and very high standard deviations, the colour code is presented of neutral responses in Table 4.5 All statements with a standard deviation above 1.0 were examined further to have a better understanding of individual data points. By examining the individual data points of statements, the spread of individual response rates across the scale can be seen to have a better understanding of the individual numbers, rather than the aggregate. Sections 4.3.1-4.3.12 present results from the twelve categories, and section 4.3.13 provides a category comparison of all 12 categories. Within each category related questions, the means, standard deviations, and level of agreement are provided for each statement. The raw data is presented in tables and further contextualised in a narrative form.

4.3.1 Category 1: Job Demands and Resources 'General'

Category 1 includes eight statements that generally explore the SLIEs' perceptions of their job demands and job resources. The mean, standard deviation, and the associated scaled level of agreement for each statement are included in table 4.6.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Agreement
25.45: My job demands are high	1.29	.739	Generally Agree
25.1: I effectively manage my work demands	.82	.858	Moderately Agree
26.14: Although my job demands are high, I have sufficient resources to manage such demands	.11	.979	Neutral
25.21: I have sufficient resources and manage my job demands effectively	.05	.999	Neutral
25.52: My job resources are low	.00	1.038	Neutral
26.1: Student learning suffers because of the many demands I face.	.05	1.101	Neutral
26.11: I lack resources and because of this my performance suffers and student learning is affected.	-.14	1.214	Neutral
25.32: I believe I have all the resources I need to be an effective teacher	-.26	1.141	Neutral

Table 4.6: General Perceptions of Job Demands and Job Resources

Among the statements analysed to better understand job demands and job resources, SLIEs overwhelmingly agree with statement 25.45, "my job demands are high," but also moderately agree with 25.1, "I effectively manage my work demands." Within this category, SLIEs were neutral regarding their job resources. JD-R theory (Demerouti et al. 2001; Baker and Demerouti 2007, 2014), suggests employees can better manage job demands when they have access to appropriate resources. Therefore, because SLIEs generally agreed that they have high demands but also manage their work demands, it was expected that the SLIEs would also show a general consensus about having available resources. However, when responding to statement, 25.52, 'My job resources are low' the expected result of moderate to general agreement/disagreement did not occur and the level of agreement came back as neutral, with a standard deviation above 1.0. The individual data points show responses in agreement as n=23, and those SLIEs in disagreement as n=26. Some SLIEs (n=17) opted to neither agree nor disagree. This reveals that only three more SLIEs disagree that job resources are low, suggesting that nearly the same number of SLIEs feel that they are in fact lacking resources of some kind.

Results from two other statements within this category do not show general agreement/disagreement and have standard deviations above 1.0, requiring further examination: Statement 26.1, 'Student learning suffers because of the many demands I face'

and 26.11, ‘I lack resources and because of this my performance suffers and student learning is affected’. Again, if job demands are high but SLIEs feel they are effectively managing those demands, it would be expected that moderate to general disagreement regarding this statement would be seen. If SLIEs are managing demands well, student learning should not be impacted by one’s job demands. Likewise, if SLIEs were effectively managing job demands, JD-R theory suggests they have enough resources to manage demands and therefore performance should not be negatively affected (Bakker and Demerouti 2001, 2007). Yet, results of these statements do not have a clear consensus and have a neutral level of agreement. This means that some SLIEs are in agreement while others are not. The individual data points to describe statement 26.1, ‘Student learning suffers because of the many demands I face’ are as follows: 26 SLIEs indicate agreement and 23 disagreements, 17 SLIEs neither agreed nor disagreed. The data here shows that three more SLIEs perceive their job demands impact student learning than those who disagree. Again, indicating a divide in the response. Referring back to statement 25.52, ‘My job resources are low’, it would have been expected that the 26 SLIEs who do not believe their resources are low, would then also indicate that student learning does not suffer because of job demands. To reiterate, if SLIEs have access to resources, they should be able to manage job demands and therefore student learning should not suffer. These results challenge the moderate level agreement previously found in statement 25.1, “I effectively manage my job demands”, for if SLIEs are managing demands effectively, presumably they have enough resources to do so, and therefore student learning will not suffer. Yet, in this finding, there is a shift and three more SLIEs in this statement indicated a perception that there is an adverse relationship between their job demands and student learning.

Statement 26.11, ‘I lack resources and because of this my performance suffers and student learning is affected’, 18 SLIEs indicate a level of agreement, 28 SLIEs show a level of disagreement, and 20 SLIEs neither agreed nor disagreed. Although participants overwhelmingly agree they have high job demands and moderately agree that they manage their demands effectively, responses as to whether or not they have available resources and whether those resources impact on individual job performance and student learning is not clear. Of the SLIEs who indicated an opinion on the statement (i.e., either agree or disagree), the majority disagree; however around 30% have opted to neither agree nor disagree. Table 4.7 includes the frequency of those who agree or strongly agree, a frequency of those who

disagree or strongly disagree, and the frequency of those who neither agreed nor disagreed to illustrate the individual data points.

Question	Agree +-	Disagree -+	Neither Agree/Disagrees
25.1 I effectively manage my work demands	51	8	7
25.2 My Job Resources are low	23	26	17
26.1 Student learning suffers because of the many demands I face.	26	23	17
26.11. I lack resources and because of this my performance suffers and student learning is affected.	18	28	20

Table 4.7: Frequency of Highlighted Data Points

The data in Table 4.7 shows a lack of consensus among SLIEs. This is interpreted to mean that although job demands are high, educators have varying experiences regarding available resources. Although resources do not appear to be perceived as impacting educator performance and student learning, several SLIEs do perceive student learning to be affected because of the job demands educators face. This finding is further discussed in Chapter 7 (section 7.4).

4.3.2 Category 2: Workload

A total of 13 statements relate to SLIEs' perceptions of workload. Statements with a strong level of agreement relate to tasks such as feedback and marking, and remaining current with interpreter education and the profession of interpreting literature (both signed and spoken). Additionally, they generally agreed that they work more hours than they are compensated for, which could be related to the time spent giving feedback and marking. Table 4.8 shows statements in association with workload.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Agreement
25.46: My students receive individual feedback on assignments	1.29	.818	Generally Agree
25.48: I read journal articles and publications around spoken and sign language interpreter education	1.15	.789	Generally Agree
25.13: I stay up to date on current literature and best practices for teaching sign language interpreting students	1.11	.844	Generally Agree
25.37: I work more hours than I am compensated for	1.06	.762	Generally Agree
25.3: Marking in sign language interpreter education requires more of my time than of my colleagues in other disciplines	1.00	.911	Moderately Agree
26.19: My workload impacts the quality and relevance of teaching delivery	.56	1.010	Moderately agree
25.9: Failing students requires me to do more work than if they pass	.32	1.279	Neutral
25.10: My job expects me to research and publish	-.27	1.494	Neutral
25.2: My workload negatively impacts the quality and relevance of the curriculum	-.02	1.170	Neutral
26.35: I often think student-learning outcomes would improve if my hands were not always tied	-.02	1.157	Neutral
26.16: My involvement with a variety of committees a the higher education institution I work for has made a difference in student learning outcomes	-.11	.947	Neutral
25.47: I reduce student workload to align with my own	-.18	1.176	Neutral
26.2: My workload does not affect student-learning outcomes	-.29	1.034	Neutral

Table 4.8: Category 2 Workload

Similar to the data presented from Category 1, Jobs Demands and Resources, the workload data in Category 2, indicates that the SLIEs recognise the job is demanding, but perceive they are fulfilling their duties. However, neutral statements with standard deviation scores above 1.0 are individually examined below to provide a sense of where SLIEs may have leaned towards agree/disagreement for each of the workload statements, and results demonstrate that SLIEs are having a range of workload related experiences.

Statement 25.10, 'My job expects me to research and publish', has the highest standard deviation. Considering the demographics of the SLIEs, the divide appears logical, as a little less than half (n=29) are not working in a university (yet working in other types of higher education institutions such as community colleges, and technical schools), and only a small number of SLIEs (n=12) identified being a 'researcher' as part of their current position. Generally speaking, not all higher education institutions are research centred (see: Chapter 2, section 2.5.3). For example, some universities lean more towards teaching and scholarship. Thus, the majority of SLIEs (n=31) are not expected to research as part of their job, it is still a demand faced by many of the SLIEs (n=22).

Statement 25.9, 'Failing students requires me to do more work than if they pass' has a standard deviation of 1.27. The individual data points show that nearly half of the SLIEs (n=32) perceive that failing students links to an increased workload. Although statement 25.30, 'The decision to pass or fail borderline students is difficult to make', is not included in the workload category, there is a statistical correlation between it and statement 25.9 and discussed in section 4.4.2 of this chapter.

Statements 25.2, 'My workload negatively impacts the quality and relevance of the curriculum' and 26.35, 'I often think student-learning outcomes would improve if my hands were not always tied' each have a mean of -.02 and only a 0.013 difference in standard deviation, which indicates that the vast majority of SLIEs were categorised in a neutral level agreement. Responses in terms of frequency to agree or disagree with these statements were further examined and provided in Table 4.9.

Question Number and Statement	Agree +/-	Disagree +/-
25.2 My workload negatively impacts the quality and relevance of the curriculum	26	27
26.35 I often think student-learning outcomes would improve if my hands were not always tied	21	21

Table 4.9: Frequency of Highlighted Data Points

As seen in Table 4.9, SLIEs were not all in agreement and they were essentially equally divided. This shows that for as many individuals who perceive workload as not negatively impacting the quality and relevance of the curriculum and student learning outcomes, just as many SLIEs believe workload does have a negative impact. Similarly, there are just as many SLIEs who believe student-learning outcomes would be improved if their hands were not always tied (e.g. workload/higher education constraints), as there are SLIEs who believe student learning outcomes are not related to their own circumstances. This is interesting to note, for as in statement 26.2, 'My workload does not affect student learning outcomes,' there are more SLIEs (n=30) who are in disagreement with the statement. This indicates that there are SLIEs who perceive links between their workload and student learning outcomes.

With this in mind, although many SLIEs may see links between workload and student learning outcomes, this data does not say they believe they are unable to manage their workload. Although the majority of SLIEs believe they are managing demands, there are SLIEs who also believe student outcomes would improve if the workload was more manageable, implying a degree of impact on student learning outcomes. Again challenging the responses to statement 25.51, suggesting some SLIEs may not be managing as well as they thought.

4.3.3 Category 3: Structure/Policy

The structure/policy category includes questions that aim to gain a richer understanding regarding perspectives SLIEs have regarding the structures and policies that frame the work environment of the higher education institution. SLIEs moderately agree the programme needs restructuring to improve student-learning outcomes and generally agree the structures and policies within a higher education institution do have an influence on student learning outcomes. However, it appears that the aspects of structure/policy causing these concerns vary; this is shown through the majority of responses indicating a neutral level of agreement

with standard deviation results above 1.0 indicating a range of responses. Table 4.10 shows the 12 statements included on structure and policy.

Category 3 includes two statements that relate to grading structures and processes. Statement 25.36 'The grading structure set by the higher education institution is appropriate for sign language interpreter education' and statement 26.6, 'The grading policy established by the higher education institution fits well with the needs of the programme'. They both resulted in a neutral level agreement amongst SLIEs with different standard deviations. Statement 25.36 is neutral and not a high standard deviation; however, statement 26.6 has a standard deviation above 1.0 thus the individual data points of both statements were examined further. Although, the questions are similar, the responses show some variation. Few SLIEs (n=9) disagreed with statement 25.36, which indicates that the grading structure set forth by the higher education institution is appropriate. However, there was an increase of respondent disagreement in question 26.6 (n=19), suggesting it may not always fit well within the specific needs of the programme. It is also noted that a large number of SLIEs (n=30) neither agreed nor disagreed with statement 25.36. However, overall there are more SLIEs who agree (n= 27) as compared to disagree (n=9) that the grading structure set by the institution is appropriate for interpreter education. In terms of statement 26.6, there were fewer SLIEs who neither agreed nor disagreed (n=18), a similar number of those in agreement (n=29), and an increase among those in disagreement (n=19).

Responses to both statements appear to show that grading structure is not one of the structural demands that need altering by the majority of SLIEs. This is further discussed in the qualitative analysis in Chapter 6 (section 6.3 and 6.7), as some SLIEs elaborated on grading structures.

Statement 26.29, 'All of the content required by the external body is well suited for students becoming sign language interpreters' showed a neutral response rate. This statement investigates if the content required by the external body is appropriate for students. Many SLIEs (n=23) agree that content required by the external body is well suited for students, while few disagree (n=9). Question 14 (as part of the demographics and programme landscape) asked whether or not programmes were mapped to an external accreditation process and over half the total SLIEs (n=39) indicated their programme was not. A few SLIEs (n=4) did not know, a few (n=4) selected other and only one of those elaborated on how their programme curriculum is linked to an external body. Thus, responses to statement

26.29 are conflicting. Considering the majority of responses indicate programmes are not mapped to external entities, or they were not sure, it would be expected that no more than 18 SLIEs would either agree or disagree with the statement. Therefore, it is concluded that these data are inconclusive and follow up research is needed to better contextualise if interpreter educators see external body mapping/accreditation as beneficial to interpreter education (see: Chapter 8, section 8.5.3, covering suggestions for further research).

Contact hours and programme duration are examples of higher education constraints, as they are structures established by the higher education institution. The JDRS-IE explored SLIEs' perceptions of such factors and how they may see them to impact on students. Although a level of neutrality resulted from the aggregate, in both cases, contact hours and programme duration, there are educators who indicate not having enough time directly with the students to prepare them for the workforce. Table 4.11 shows how many individuals either agreed or disagreed with, 'I have enough contact hours with students to cover course curriculum' and 25.37, 'I can teach everything I need to teach in the duration of the programme'. Noting that although there are slightly more SLIEs (n=33) who agree they have enough contact hours with students to cover the curriculum than those who disagree (n=26), there are more SLIEs (n=35) who do not believe they can teach everything they need to within the current duration of the programme than those who agree (n=18). Thus, responses lean in opposite directions. They lean toward agreement for contact hours and disagreement for duration. In both cases there are only a small number of SLIEs who neither agreed nor disagreed indicating a majority of SLIEs hold a clear opinion regarding these questions. Further, curriculum is one of the least satisfied resources, but is essential. Therefore, there may be enough contact hours to cover the current curriculum, but not enough time in the programme to cover content that educators perceive as important to teach prior to student graduation.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Agreement
26.10: Our programme needs restructuring to improve student learning outcomes	.59	1.052	Moderately agree
25.36: The grading structure set by the higher educational institutions is appropriate for sign language interpreter education	.26	.950	Neutral
26.29: All of the content required by the external body is well suited for students becoming sign language interpreters	.26	.751	Neutral
25.33: Student numbers are tied to how much money our programme/department receives	.26	1.042	Neutral
26.6: The grading policy established by the higher education institution fits well with the needs of the programme	.17	1.061	Neutral
25.4: I have enough contact hours with students to cover course curriculum	.11	1.165	Neutral
25.42: Classes always run even when enrolment is down	.08	1.219	Neutral
25.18: My programme receives the same amount of funding as other comparable disciplines	.02	.920	Neutral
26.26: Research conducted at my institution directly improves sign language interpreter education and thus makes a difference in student learning outcomes	-.14	1.175	Neutral
26.12: The Higher Education Institution I work at is willing to "go the distance" to make sure students are prepared	-.20	1.084	Neutral
25.37: I can teach everything I need to teach in the duration of the programme	-.39	1.162	Neutral
26.9: The Higher Education System has no influence over student learning outcomes	-.67	.982	Generally Disagree

Table 4.10: Structure and Policy

Question Number and Statement	Agree +/-	Disagree +/-
25.4: I have enough contact hours with students to cover course curriculum	33	26
25.37: I can teach everything I need to teach in the duration of the programme	18	34

Table 4.11: Frequency of Highlighted Data Points

The importance of maintaining student numbers via recruitment, enrolment and graduation was a factor frequently mentioned in the scoping study (see: Webb and Napier 2015) and

therefore further explored during the JDRS-IE in the two statements presented in Table 4.12. These statements were assessed to understand how student numbers might have impacts on courses and funding.

Question Number and Statement	Agree +/-	Disagree +/-
25.42: Classes always run even when enrolment is down	29	26
25.33: Student numbers are tied to how much money our programme/department receives	25	27

Table 4.12: Student Numbers/Impact on Courses and Funding

Regarding statement 25.42, 29 SLIEs state classes continue to run when numbers are low, whereas 26 SLIEs disagree implying that classes are cancelled or rescheduled when there are not enough students.

The purpose of statement 25.33 was to see if there was a link between student numbers and funding. However, the results indicate an agreement level of neutrality. The standard deviation is noted being above 1.0 (1.04). The responses are predominately split between showing a level of agreement (n=25) and neither agreeing nor disagreeing (n=27). Considering that not all of the SLIEs are programme coordinators or in a position of authority, it seems possible that those who neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement may not know how their programme receives funds in the first place. There are more SLIEs who indicate that student numbers influence how much money the programme receives (n=25), than those who disagree (n=14).

To assess SLIEs' perceptions of possible links between research within their respective higher education institutions and student learning outcomes, SLIEs were asked to respond to statement 26.26 'Research conducted at my institution directly improves sign language interpreter education and thus makes a difference in student learning outcomes'. Again, this statement resulted in a neutral level of agreement, with a standard deviation above 1.0. The individual data points show 22 SLIEs disagree with the statement and 18 SLIEs are in agreement, showing more SLIEs believe that research conducted within their institution has no direct impact on student learning outcomes. Moreover, 26 SLIEs opted to neither agree nor disagree, which may relate to the majority of SLIEs who are not required to engage with research as part of their job responsibilities. As previously seen in the outline of demographics, 12 SLIEs identified themselves as researchers and 22 SLIEs are expected to

research and publish. According to results from statement 25.25, 'I have time to research, publish and disseminate information to the wider public', even though some SLIEs do not identify as researchers or are not expected to research, the majority of SLIEs (even if they wanted to research) do not perceive they have the time available to participate in such activities, (n=40). This may be due to the time constraints SLIEs face when attempting to juggle other roles and responsibilities, an idea further discussed with relevant literature in Chapter 7, section 7.1.

The final statement within this category, 26.12 asks whether or not the higher education institution is willing to "go the distance" to ensure student preparedness. Although this question is relatively vague, it attempted to gauge educators' view of the higher education institution they work in and its support of student readiness. In this instance, the majority of SLIEs (n=26) neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement, of the 40 SLIEs who did agree/disagree with the statement, the majority do not perceive their higher education institution as going the extra mile for students (n=23).

4.3.4 Category 4: Administration/Support

The administration/support category assesses how SLIEs perceive administration, and the level of expertise and support they provide. Although some of these statements appear to relate to structure or policy of the higher education institution, it is often the administrators who join in the decision-making process around structures and policies as well as uphold/enforce them. Therefore, the perceptions SLIEs have of their administration may be linked to structure of the organisation. Table 4.13 shows the eight statements analysed within the administration/support category.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Agreement
25.50: Student numbers is a concern of my administration	.91	.924	Generally Agree
25.24: I receive feedback through formal evaluation/appraisals	.50	1.243	Moderately Agree
25.35: Feedback I receive from the administration about my job performance is beneficial	.09	1.092	Neutral
25.42: Classes always run even when enrolment is down	.08	1.219	Neutral
25.8: I feel pressure to pass students to meet student number requirements	-.17	1.308	Neutral
25.31: In the last 6 months, I have requested funds for resources and have been denied	-.27	1.222	Neutral
26.33: The administration directly or indirectly pressures me to pass students regardless of competency	-.30	1.324	Neutral
25.23: The Higher Education Institution I work for pays for me to attend conferences	-.33	1.363	Neutral

Table 4.13: Category Four, Administration and Support

SLIEs indicate agreement with two statements. They generally agree with 25.50, 'Student numbers is a concern of my administration' and they moderately agree with statement 25.24, 'I receive feedback through formal evaluation/appraisals'. However, the remaining six statements indicate a neutral level of agreement and of those statements; three have what is considered to be a high standard deviation. The higher standard deviations indicate SLIEs have varying experiences with their administrations.

Seeing how the SLIEs generally agree with statement 25.50, 'Student numbers is a concern of my administration', it is unsurprising that some of the SLIEs also agree or strongly agree with statement 25.8, 'I feel pressure to pass students to meet student number requirements' and 26.33 'The administration directly or indirectly pressures me to pass students regardless of competency'. For example, for statement 25.8, seven SLIEs have neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, leaving the remaining SLIEs to either agree or disagree resulting in 33 SLIEs disagreeing with administrative pressures and 26 SLIEs having experiencing it. This shows that although it is not the vast majority, it is an experience that interpreter educators have and should be accounted for when considering factors contributing to the RWG.

Question 26.33, 'The administration directly or indirectly pressures me to pass students regardless of competency' explores the action instigated by the administration regarding student numbers. In this finding, the majority of the SLIEs (n=33) indicated that the administration is not pressuring them to pass students regardless of competency, but 18 SLIEs did experience pressures to pass students.

Statements 25.24 and 25.35 explored to see if SLIEs have their job performance officially evaluated, and if so, whether or not they felt the feedback they received from the administration to be valuable. In this finding, participants moderately agreed they do receive evaluation/appraisal; however, there is a neutral level of agreement on whether or not such processes provided by the administration is beneficial. SLIEs moderately agree with the fact they are evaluated (statement 25.24), but a neutral level of agreement was shown for statement 25.35 describing the benefits of such evaluations. Although 24 SLIEs opted to neither agree nor disagree, 24 SLIEs expressed value in the administrations' feedback regarding their job performance and 18 SLIEs did not see the advantages of their evaluation processes from their administrators. It is plausible to consider that at times the evaluations are beneficial and other times they are not. If this is the case, then this may be why 24 SLIEs opted to neither agree nor disagree. Or it may be simply that they do not find value in the evaluation processes and consider it just an exercise to meet administrative protocols.

Statements 25.23, 25.24 and 25.35 gauge the experiences SLIEs have regarding their respective administrations' level of support of employee professional development opportunities. Although each of these statements has a neutral level of agreement, they also demonstrate varying degrees of consensus shown by the standard deviation results. Statement 25.23, 'The Higher Education Institution I work for pays me to attend conferences' has the highest level of standard deviation in this category (standard deviation =1.363), indicating that some educators are funded to attend conferences, while others are not.

In addition to providing feedback on job performance and professional development, those individuals in administrative roles are often the ones who will sign off on resource support (e.g. funding for new staff, classroom materials, conference attendance etc.). For statement 25.31, 'In the last 6 months, I have requested funds for resources and have been denied', a total of 24 SLIEs opted to neither agree nor disagree. However, those who did respond indicated that more SLIEs are having resource requests funded (n=27) than those who are not

(n=15). Although explanation of these numbers is not certain, this level of neutrality depicted through the high standard deviations, reasons for responses may be twofold. First, SLIEs are not making requests for resource funding or secondly, sometimes they are funded and other times they are not.

4.3.5 Category 5: Personal/Performance

Fifteen statements were organised in the personal/performance category for analysis and are outlined in Table 4.14. This category has the highest amount of consensus amongst the SLIEs with over 50% of the statements generally-moderately agreed with. This may be due to the idea that perceptions of self are easier to take a stance on than statements relating to people and issues separate from the 'self'.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Agreement
25.5: I feel a sense of personal responsibility in my job to serve my students well	1.79	.412	Generally Agree
25.7: I work more hours than I am compensated for	1.35	1.074	Generally Agree
25.39: I believe I have the skill sets to be an effective teacher	1.33	.730	Generally Agree
26.24: My job performance impacts student-learning outcomes	1.12	.621	Generally Agree
25.14: The reason I work so many hours is because of the pressure I put on myself to do well	1.06	.802	Generally Agree
26.37: I believe my job performance is beyond satisfactory	1.06	.762	Generally Agree
26.22: Student learning is my primary responsibility	1.03	.877	Generally Agree
25.20: The decision to pass or fail borderline students is difficult to make	.74	.997	Moderately agree
26.23: My job performance is consistent throughout each semester	.59	.992	Moderately Agree
25.24: I receive feedback through formal evaluation/appraisals	.50	1.243	Neutral
25.35: Feedback I receive from the administration	.09	1.092	Neutral

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Agreement
about my job performance is beneficial			
25.26: I feel my work life and personal life are well balanced	-.14	1.135	Neutral
26.7: My students know I am stressed	-.14	1.149	Neutral
26.17: My personal life impacts my job performance	-.21	1.060	Neutral
25.40: My personal life has interfered with my professional life	-.44	1.125	Neutral

Table 4.14: Category Five, Personal/Performance

SLIEs almost unanimously agreed that they feel a sense of personal responsibility to serve students well. This may relate the general agreement expressed for statements 26.22, 'Student learning is my primary responsibility', 26.24, 'My job performance impacts student-learning outcomes', and 25.7 'I work more hours than I am compensated for'. These results indicate that SLIEs appear to perceive their work does matter and they value education, both in terms of teaching and overall student learning experience. Additionally, these results suggest SLIEs do in fact perceive their role as an educator has a purpose and their performance (both good and bad) will have an impact on learning outcomes and overall work readiness.

SLIEs within the study rate their personal performance highly and therefore one would assume they would then also be very confident in their students' abilities, specifically related to professional readiness upon graduation. However, sections 4.3.11 and 4.4.7-4.4.9 show this is not the case and that educators actually *lack* confidence in their graduates' abilities. Additionally, as previously stated, 50% of SLIEs agreed to pass students regardless of whether or not they are ready to advance. If these educators are confident in their job performance as being effective and beyond satisfactory, it would be expected that the same level of confidence be expressed regarding graduate readiness. However, this is not the case.

One of the reasons educators may view their job performance so positively may be tied to the amount of hours they work. Here, SLIEs generally agree that they work extra hours because of the pressure they are putting on themselves. Considering, SLIEs generally express they are experiencing high job demand and they also feel as if they are managing their demands (see: section 4.3.2).

Six of the 15 statements have a neutral level of agreement and have standard deviations above 1.0. Four of the six statements have a negative mean, which suggests the SLIEs lean towards disagreement. Table 4.15 shows the frequency of individual data points for these six statements. They have been ordered in terms of standard deviation- highest to lowest.

Question Number and Statement	Standard Deviation	Agree +/-	Disagree +/-
26.7: My students know I am stressed	1.149	21	30
25.26: I feel my work life and personal life are well balanced	1.135	23	26
25.40: My personal life has interfered with my professional life	1.125	13	37
25.24: I receive feedback through formal evaluation/appraisals	1.243	45	16
25.35.: Feedback I receive from the administration about my job performance is beneficial	1.092	24	18
26.17: My personal life impacts my job performance	1.060	19	30

Table 4.15: Frequency of Highlighted Data Points

Three of the statements provided in Table 4.15, although the aggregate does not show general agreement or general disagreement, show how SLIEs clearly leaned toward agreement (statement 25.24) or disagreement (statements: 26.17, 2.40). Referring to statement 26.17, although 19 SLIEs see their personal life as impacting their job performance, 30 SLIEs do not. In statement 25.40, SLIEs are asked if their personal life has interfered with their professional life and the results show a slight shift in the responses from the 19 SLIEs who agreed with personal life impacting professional life, to 13 SLIEs who perceive their personal life interfering with professional matters. Interference may be considered a more negative term than impact, and suggest that some SLIEs see their personal life as having an impact, but not as interference.

Statement, 25.24 "I receive feedback through formal evaluation/appraisals" is statistically neutral. 66% of the SLIEs are responding as they do in fact undergo formal evaluation and appraisals. However, in statement 25.35, "Feedback I receive from the administration about my job performance is beneficial" there is a drop from those who receive feedback to those who consider feedback to be beneficial. There is also a substantial increase of those who neither agree nor disagree with whether or not the process is beneficial. Therefore, even

though many SLIEs may have formal evaluations and appraisals, whether or not such processes are benefiting them is questionable.

4.3.6 Category 6: External Bodies

As described in Chapter 2, the profession of interpreting and higher education institutions are interlinked. Sign language interpreter education programmes are situated within the higher education system, made up of separate departments, schools, and overarching management and governance, while also interconnected to external bodies that are connected to the interpreting profession (e.g. communities, interpreting communities, and also professional organisations) (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005). These stakeholder groups often have direct involvement with sign language interpreter education programmes in terms of language development, student mentorships, and placements and for programme accreditation. The data in Table 4.16 show five questions related to perceptions SLIEs have in terms of possible impacts external bodies may have on them directly as educators, as well as their programmes and students.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Agreement
25.43: Expectations from sign language interpreters create an additional layer of pressure for me	.47	1.026	Neutral
25.38: My students' skills and abilities upon graduation can negatively affect my reputation as a professional within the deaf community	.45	.964	Neutral
26.29: All of the content required by the external body is well suited for students becoming sign language interpreters	.26	.751	Neutral
25.6: I feel pressured from the deaf community regarding how my students perform upon graduation	.20	1.084	Neutral
25.15: I believe my reputation in the deaf community is tied to my students' performance upon graduation	-.06	1.080	Neutral

Table 4.16: Category 6: External Bodies

Data from the JDRS-IE indicates SLIEs are not in clear agreement or disagreement that external bodies impact their respective reputation, job performance, or their students' learning outcomes. Statements were examined closely to understand the range of experiences. In regards to 25.43, the mean for statement 25.43, 'Expectations from sign language interpreters creates an additional layer of pressure for me' is slightly below

moderately agree. There are 36 SLIEs who agree interpreters from the community not affiliated with their programme to add an additional layer of pressure. Additionally, 16 SLIEs neither agreed nor disagreed and 14 showed some level of disagreement. Similarly, although the aggregate of the general statistics do not show moderate to general agreement, the original data showed the majority of SLIEs have a sense of agreement on how their reputation in their local deaf community (statement 25.15) is related to their students' performance. In this case, again 41 SLIEs have a degree of agreement, 14 neither agree nor disagree, and 11 have disagreed with the statement.

Statement 25.38, 'My students' skills and abilities upon graduation can negatively affect my reputation as a professional within the deaf community', sought similar information from SLIEs, and responses were relatively similar. In this case, 36 SLIEs agreed, 19 neither agreed nor disagreed, and again 11 have disagreed with this statement. These numbers should be accounted for as they indicate how SLIEs perceive a link between educator reputation and student performance. This perception of individual reputation may also be linked to why many SLIEs feel pressured by the deaf community regarding their student performance upon graduation. As in statement 25.6, 66.6% of the SLIEs are in agreement as to feeling some type of pressure from deaf communities regarding graduate abilities of their students.

4.3.7 Category 7: Time

SLIEs generally agree time is their most valuable resource. This resource seems most aligned with being able to manage one's workload as a major job demand. Table 4.17 shows the eight statements SLIEs were asked about relating to time as a resource.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of agreement
25.44: Time is my most valuable resource	1.23	.800	Generally Agree
25.37: I work more hours than I am compensated for	1.06	.762	Generally Agree
25.11: I have time to meet with students 1:1 if they need	.77	.973	Moderately Agree
25.17: I have time to collaborate with my colleagues	.18	1.162	Neutral
25.28: I have time to invest into professional development activities	.12	1.157	Neutral
25.19: I have time to create new and revamp old lesson plans	-.03	1.067	Neutral
25.22: I have time to strengthen and improve curriculum when needed	-.11	1.054	Neutral
25.25: I have time to research, publish, and disseminate information to wider audiences	-.62	1.147	Moderately Disagree

Table 4.17 Category 7: Time

Bearing in mind how SLIEs value student learning and consider it their primary responsibility, it appears reasonable that SLIEs agree that they have time to meet with students, work more hours than compensated to develop and plan lessons, and mark student work and provide feedback. Working more hours than compensated also suggests they work additional hours at home and on weekends. Therefore, this may also indicate when participants say they "have the time" they may actually not have the time, but rather prioritise their time to students and use personal time as a resource to manage their job demands.

The aggregate response to statements 25.17, 25.28, 25.19, and 25.22 reveal a neutral level of agreement regarding time to collaborate with colleagues, develop lesson plans, and participate in professional development activities. Many SLIEs (n=32) did express having time to collaborate with colleagues, however 22 showed a level of disagreement and 12 neither agreed nor disagreed (see: Table 4.18). Responses to question 25.53, 'I know what my colleagues are teaching in their classrooms' reveal similar findings. The data shows that 32 SLIEs appear to know what their colleagues are teaching and 18 report they do not know what their colleagues are teaching. This data suggests that although some SLIEs have time to collaborate, not all SLIEs have this time and some are unaware of what their colleagues are teaching. Although prioritising time to collaborate does not appear to be a major issue

amongst the majority of SLIEs, it does affect some and may serve as a key support resource, which may aid SLIEs in managing their job demands.

Question	Agree +-	Disagree -+	Neither Agree/Disagrees
25.17 I have time to collaborate with my colleagues	32	22	12

Table 4.18 Frequency of Highlighted Data Points

The experiences SLIEs have regarding time for professional development activities varied, yet ultimately leaned towards agreement (see: Table 4.19). 31 SLIEs showed degrees of agreement, 21 SLIEs showed levels of disagreement, and 14 SLIEs opted to neither agree nor disagree.

Question	Agree +-	Disagree -+	Neither Agree/Disagrees
25.28: I have time to invest into professional development activities	31	21	14

Table 4.19 Frequency of Highlighted Data Points

For statements 25.19, 'I have time to create new and revamp old lesson plans', and 25.22, 'I have time to strengthen and improve curriculum when needed', although both statements show neutral levels of agreement for the aggregate, according to the individual data points, SLIEs appear to be relatively split with the type of experiences they have. For example, when asked if they feel they have time to create new and revamp existing lesson plans (25.19), 27 SLIEs agree, 29 SLIEs disagree, and 10 SLIEs neither agree nor disagree. Neither agreeing nor disagreeing may indicate feeling that time is available in some circumstances and in others it is not. Again, the varying data illustrates how experiences of job demands and job resources are not consistent across the sample. Likewise, statement 25.22 which explores if SLIEs have time to strengthen curriculum again, is relatively split between degrees of agreement and disagreement, which is presented in table 4.20.

Question	Agree +-	Disagree -+	Neither Agree/Disagrees
25.19: I have time to create new and revamp old lesson plans	27	29	10
25.22: I have time to strengthen and improve curriculum when needed	24	28	14

Table 4.20: Frequency of Highlighted Data Points

SLIEs generally disagree with question 25.25, which demonstrates that they do not have time available to conduct, publish, and disseminate research. Again, few SLIEs identified themselves as researchers (n=12), the number of higher education institutions who have research included as part of their workload (n=22), and here 28 SLIEs indicate they do not have time to conduct research. Results could be interpreted as there are some educators, who although they do not currently identify themselves as researchers, or have research required of them as part of their workload, are interested in doing research but do not have the time to do so.

The data within this category shows SLIEs have limited time in varying degrees, but prioritise their student interaction within the time they have. Again, according to statement 25.37, SLIEs indicate they often work extra hours without compensation, which potentially helps them manage job demands. The varying degrees of consensus for each of the specified items appears to mean that some SLIEs have time and others do not have time for these particular tasks. Depending upon the nature of their workload and expectations of the higher education institutions (e.g. publish or perish vs. no research responsibilities), it makes sense for SLIEs to have these varying perspectives on "having enough time" as SLIEs may need more or less time to complete and manage job demands, but those demands can vary based on the nature of the higher education institution they work.

4.3.8 Category 8: Collaboration and Support

Nine statements were categorised under the theme of collaboration and support and are presented in Table 4.21. These supports include collegial support, financial support, and staffing.

The most agreed upon collaboration/support question in Category 8 is 25.51, which relates to collegial support. As noted previously, SLIEs do take time to meet with colleagues, yet whether or not they have enough time to do so was reported as neutral. Statements, 25.30, 25.51, 26.18, 25.53, and 25.17 explore the perspectives SLIEs have regarding their collegial relationships.

Question	Agree +-	Disagree -+	Neither Agree/Disagrees
25.51: My colleagues and I collaborate	1.05	.919	Generally Agree
25.30: My colleagues serve as a resource and I utilise them to improve my teaching	.85	.949	Moderately Agree
26.18: My colleagues and I collaborate our lesson plans to maximize student success	.39	1.175	Neutral
25.53: I know what my colleagues are teaching in their classes	.27	1.158	Neutral
25.17: I have time to collaborate with my colleagues	.18	1.162	Neutral
25.49: When I make requests for funding requests, my requests are granted	.00	1.038	Neutral
25.27: The sign language interpreter education programme I work in has sufficient numbers of staff to share workload responsibilities	-.33	1.128	Neutral
25.34: We have more full-time educators than those on contracts or working part-time	-.39	1.466	Neutral
25.23: The Higher Education Institution I work for pays for me to attend conferences	-.33	1.363	Neutral

Table 4.21: Collaboration and Support

SLIEs generally agreed they collaborate with their colleagues (statement 25.51) and moderately agreed that colleagues serve as a resource (statement 25.30). Additionally, statement 26.18, 'My colleagues and I collaborate on our lesson plans to maximize student success' indicates SLIEs agree collaboration is beneficial to students. However, statement 25.53, 'I know what my colleagues are teaching in their classes', shows SLIEs have a neutral level of agreement; as the individual data points show 32 responses in agreement that they know what their colleagues are teaching. Those who do not know what their colleagues are teaching may also collaborate on projects that are not necessarily teaching related. Considering 17 SLIEs neither agreed nor disagreed with statement 26.18, this may also suggest SLIEs collaborate sometimes and not all the time, or that there are not necessarily any staff to collaborate with (see: sections 4.3.9 and 4.7.6). Similarly, 16 SLIEs reported they do not collaborate on lesson plans with colleagues.

A major resource for any employee is the physical resources they need to support them in their job. Statements 25.49, 'When I make requests for funding, my requests are granted' and 25.23, 'The Higher Education Institution I work for pays for me to attend conferences', attempt to understand if SLIEs are receiving financial support to obtain resources (both physical resources as well as developmental resources). Statement 25.49 resulted in a mean

that equals zero. This could imply experiences vary or that funding for resources is not a regularly occurring experience. Thus, it may not have been something the SLIEs could easily report; hence a majority (n=35) responded that they neither agree nor disagree. Half (n=33) of the SLIEs indicated disagreement about receiving funds to attend conferences for professional development. Thus, although they find time to engage with professional development as seen in 4.7.6, they appear to be funding the opportunities personally, which is further understood in Chapter 6.

When considering SLIEs' feelings about collaboration and support they receive from colleagues, it is important to see if there are adequate human resources available in the first place. Human resources are specifically looked at in the subsequent section, but it should be noted that a high standard deviation of statement 25.34, 'We have more full-time educators than those on contracts or working part-time', indicates SLIEs have a range of experiences. The data shows that more SLIEs disagree (n =32) with the statement than agree (n=22). Noting, of those who disagree, 24 SLIEs strongly disagree and only 8 strongly agree. Therefore, how many staff members are employed as well as the employment status of staff (full-time/permanent and non-permanent) potentially influence whether or not SLIEs feel supported in the workplace, as collegial support cannot exist without other staff to collaborate with.

4.3.9 Category 9: Human Resources

Human resources include full-time/permanent, part-time, and non-permanent staff. There was a range of employment statuses amongst the SLIEs in the JDRS-IE. Results from the JDRS-IE show SLIEs generally agree teaching staff contribute to student readiness, but were neutral in regards to having enough staff to meet student needs. Noting again the standard deviation for statement 25.34, 'We have more full-time educators than those on contracts or working part-time', which demonstrates the range of consensus amongst SLIEs who indicate that some educators work primarily with other full-time staff, while others may be the only full-time educator, leaving the programme dependent on non-permanent staff. The data show SLIEs (n=32) have fewer full-time/permanent staff than those working in non-permanent contracted positions. Table 4.22 shows three statements related to human resources within the JDRS-IE.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of agreement
26.30: Teaching staff contributes to student readiness	1.21	.691	Generally Agree
26.15: We have enough staff to meet student needs	-.06	1.080	Neutral
25.34: We have more full-time educators than those on contracts or working part-time	-.39	1.466	Neutral

Table 4.22 Collaboration and Support

According to the response data of question 26.15, 'We have enough staff to meet student needs' the aggregate calculation indicates a neutral level of agreement. The individual data points show that more SLIEs (n=27) are in agreement with having enough staff to meet student needs, and only one respondent strongly agrees. However, there are more SLIEs (n=7) who indicate strong feelings of disagreement and a total 25 SLIEs indicating disagreement to having enough staff to meet their student needs. Therefore, although there are slightly more (n=2) who agree there is enough staff to meet student needs, there are more of those who strongly disagree (n=7) than those who strongly agree (n=1).

4.3.10 Category 10: Student Supports

Educators are directly responsible for teaching students and preparing students for the workforce. How higher education institutions are structured may also influence how much the educator can directly support students. Supporting students can be considered a workload related job demand, while also serving as a resource. If the higher education institution provides additional support to students they may require less directly from the educator. Seven questions have been categorised as support potentially available to students from both the SLIEs and their respective higher education institutions. SLIEs generally agreed with four out of the seven student support statements. These four statements refer directly to the SLIEs and what they are doing personally to support students (see questions 26.3, 26.33, 26.8 and 25.48). The level of agreement decreases to moderate level agreement regarding two questions: the amount of time the respondent has available to give to students (25.11) and a general statement about providing students the supports to supplement their classroom learning (26.13). Table 23 shows the seven statements examined within the JDRS-IE on student supports.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Agreement
26.3: The feedback my students receive from instructors is instrumental to their learning and skill development t	1.38	.674	Generally Agree
26.8: I provide my students with the most current information regarding the sign language interpreting profession	1.33	.751	Generally Agree
25.48: I read journal articles and publications around spoken and sign language interpreter education	1.15	.789	Generally Agree
26.22: Student learning is my primary responsibility	1.03	.877	Generally Agree
26.13: We offer extra supports to students to supplement their classroom learning	.91	1.077	Moderately Agree
25.11: I have time to meet with students 1:1 if they need	.77	.973	Moderately Agree
26.20: I believe our programme meets all of our students' needs	-.30	1.037	Neutral

Table 4.23 Category 10 Student Supports

In regards to question 26.20, 'I believe our programme meets all of our students needs', responses lean towards disagreement, although the aggregate indicates a neutral level of response. The majority of the SLIEs disagree (n=30) and others strongly disagree (n=5), whereas approximately a quarter of the responses show agreement (n=17). Therefore, although responses indicate a strong commitment to supporting students, SLIEs are not equally as confident that their programme meets student needs.

4.3.11 Category 11: Work Readiness & Student Learning Outcomes

A major component of this study is to identify SLIEs' perspectives of student work readiness. However, in the five work-ready statements, SLIEs were neutral, except for the generally agreed upon statement that educators perceive their job performance as impacting student learning outcomes. Six statements are explored in Table 4.24 regarding student learning outcomes and work readiness.

Although, SLIEs generally rated their performance positively (see section 4.3.5 category 5: Personal/Performance), there appears to be no consensus students are ready to work upon graduation. This shows a lack of confidence in their individual preparation of students and the overall programmes' preparation of students in regards to borderline students, and/or that students are ready to work or at best, safe to practice. Statement 26.34, 'The higher

education institution I work is doing a good job preparing students to work as interpreters', shows that just under half of the SLIEs reported positively (n=31). Remaining SLIEs either disagreed (n=12) or opted to neither agree nor disagree (n=23) with the question, suggesting a lack of confidence or uncertainty in student readiness. The data revealed 50% of the SLIEs agree that their students are safe to practice. Additionally, where some SLIEs (n=13) who initially disagreed their higher education institution was preparing students ready to work, there are a few more SLIEs that also report their graduates' interpreters are not safe to practice (n=16), again showing there are SLIEs appear to lack confidence in responding to student abilities upon graduation.

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Average Level
26.24: My job performance impacts student-learning outcomes	1.12	.621	Generally Agree
26.34: The higher education institution I work for is doing a good job in preparing students to work as interpreters	.30	.992	Neutral
26.5: I have passed borderline students who should have been held back	.20	1.084	Neutral
26.25: I believe students in our programme are "safe to practice" upon graduation	.20	.996	Neutral
26.20: I believe our programme meets all of our students' needs	-.30	1.037	Neutral
26.33: The administration directly or indirectly pressures me to pass students regardless of competency	-.30	1.324	Neutral

Table 4.24 Category 11 Work Readiness & Student Learning Outcomes

Statement 26.5, 'I have passed borderline students who should have been held back', is also highlighted again here, as although the aggregate has a neutral agreement level, the standard deviation is 1.08, and the results show that 50% of the SLIEs agree to have passing those borderline students who should have been held back.

Table 4.25 shows the percentages to show the breakdown of how SLIEs responded to this statement.

Level of Agreement with Statement: I have passed borderline students who should have been held back	Percentage
Strongly Agree	6.1%
Agree	43.9%
Neither Agree nor Disagree	21.2%
Disagree	21.2%
Strongly Disagree	7.6%

Table 4.25 Statement 26.5 Percentages

4.3.12 Category 12: Educator Overall Wellbeing

Educator wellbeing was not thoroughly explored in the JDRS-IE, as Phase 3 including the UWES-17, MBI-ES, and AWS described in Chapter 3 aimed to better understand aspects of wellbeing. However, a few questions within the JDRS-IE attempted to marginally gauge wellbeing and are shown in Table 4.26

Question Number and Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Average Level
25.37: I work more hours than I am compensated for	1.06	.762	Generally Agree
26.37: I believe my job performance is beyond satisfactory	1.06	.762	Generally Agree
26.23: My job performance is consistent throughout each semester	.59	.992	Neutral
25.41 Following practices established by the Higher Education Institution I work is stressful	0.13	1.036	Neutral
26.7: My students know I am stressed	-1.14	1.149	Neutral

Chapter 4 Table 4.26 Educator Overall Wellbeing

This data revealed SLIEs are working beyond contracted expectations, yet they perceive they are doing a job beyond satisfaction. Some SLIEs are unable to hide their stress levels from their students (n=21), whereas others are either not stressed or do not believe their students are able to see their stress. The data shows 15 SLIEs neither agreed nor disagreed with statement 26.7; this may be because they are unsure if their students notice their stress levels or not. Although SLIEs showed a neutral level of agreement for statement 25.41, the individual data points were explored due to its standard deviation being above 1.0. Of these individual data points, 26 SLIEs agreed that following policies set forth by the higher education institution are stressful, and of those, six strongly agreed with this statement. On

the other hand 21 SLIEs disagreed that following policies and procedures is stressful and of those, only two disagreed. There were also many SLIEs (n=19) who neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, suggesting that policies and procedures may be stressful at times but not all of the time.

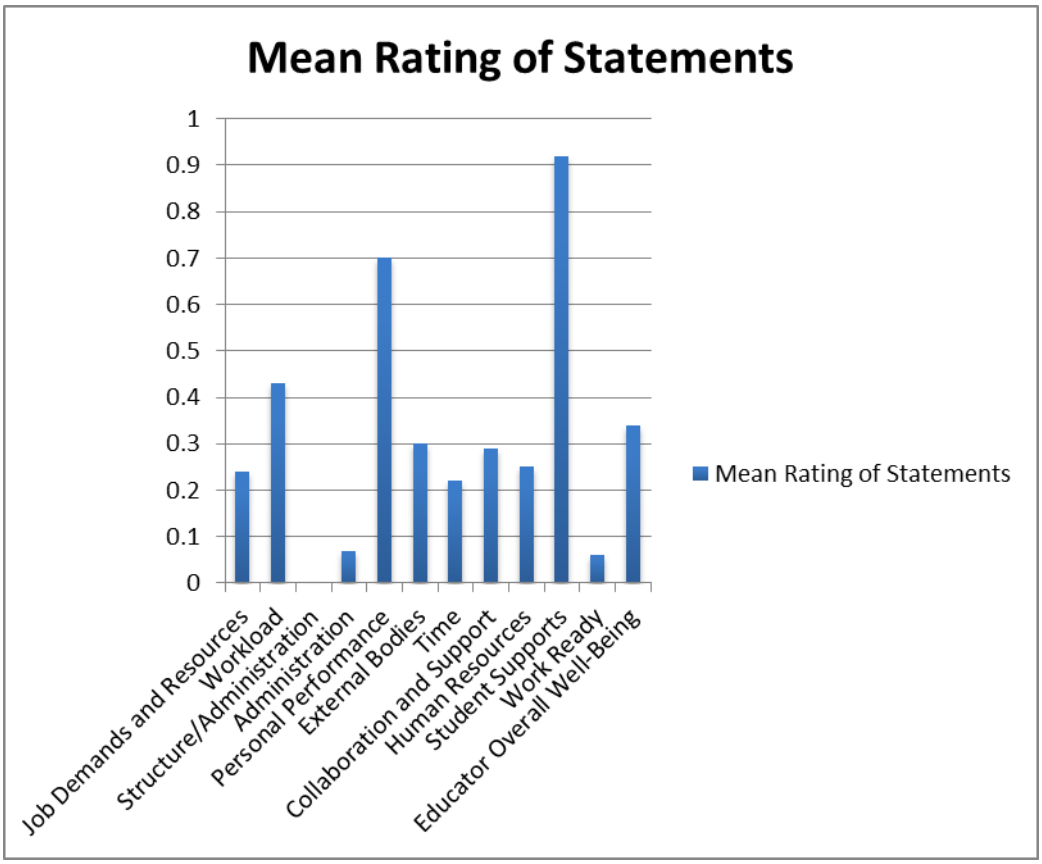
4.3.13 Category Comparison

In addition to looking at individual questions organised under the 12 categories, the combined means were also calculated. The results displayed in Table 4.27 provide the means for the statements within each of the 12 categories. Based on the scale provided in Table 4.4, the results indicate a general notion of neutrality with the exception of two categories, personal performance and student supports.

Category	Mean Ratings of Statements
Job Demands and Resources	0.24
Workload	0.43
Structure/Administration	0.00
Administration	0.07
Personal Performance	0.70
External Bodies	0.30
Time	0.22
Collaboration and Support	0.29
Human Resources	0.25
Student Supports	0.92
Work Ready	0.06
Educator Overall Well-Being	0.34

Table 4.27 Scale to Determine Overall Neutrality

Overall, the statements' means indicate that of the categories assessed, SLIEs expressed the strongest sense of personal responsibility regarding their job (mean=0.70) and satisfaction with their job performance in relation to serving their students (mean=0.92) (see: Table 4.2.7 and Chart 4.1). With this in mind, all other categories were identified as neutral and neutrality also holds meaning. Even though perceptions of their performance as despite the levels of satisfaction with their performance and serving students, the SLIEs' experiences with the other categories are not as straight forward (collaboration, resources, student work readiness).



Chapter 4 Chart 4.1 Mean Ratings of Statements

To further understand what job demands are perceived as most demanding, and what job resources are most essential as well as their satisfaction of such resources, SLIEs were asked to rank job demands and job resources within the JDRS-IE. Descriptive statistics are presented in sections 4.4 and 4.5 to analyse such factors.

4.4 Ranking of Job Demand Categories

Using the previously identified job demand categories presented in section 4.3, this section provides results from the JDRS-IE on SLIEs' perceptions of job demand categories in what they perceive to be the most demanding aspects of their job to the least demanding. SLIEs have ranked categories in the following order 1) Expectations, 2) Workload, 3) Personal, 4) External, 5) Higher education constraints. Similar to the results outlined in section 4.3, to analyse the ranking data descriptive statistics are used.

4.4.1 Job Demands: Expectations

According to the data, SLIEs find juggling expectations to be the most demanding aspect of working as a sign language interpreter educator. For definitions of each of these categories refer to section 4.1 within this chapter.

The JDRS-IE defines expectations as those expectancies placed on the educator internally or externally regarding overall job performance. SLIEs were specifically asked to consider the expectations placed on them by administrators/management, colleagues, students, and those external to the higher education institution such as interpreting and deaf communities. They were also asked to consider the expectations they place on themselves. These expectations may be in relation to student achievement, or their individual job performance. Table 4.35 shows what SLIEs believe to be the most demanding aspects of the job demand category 'expectations'. The mean or average, associated with each finding is also presented in Table 4.28.

Rank	Specific Job Demands	Mean
1	Student Expectations	2.21
2	Internal Expectations	2.32
3	Administrative Expectations	3.08
4	Collegial	3.33
5	External	3.34

Table 4.28 Ranking of Job Demand Category: Expectations

SLIEs perceive student expectations as the most demanding aspect of this category. This is followed by the expectations they have on themselves. The expectations SLIEs feel from the administration is the third highest ranked demand within this category, above collegial expectations and external expectations. This seems worthy to note because of the ten job resource categories, administration/management is the least most essential job resource.

4.4.2 Job Demand: Workload

Workload is the second most demanding job demand category. Within this category there were 20 related job demand tasks that were ranked from most demanding to least demanding. Means were then calculated to find the aggregate response to determine what is considered the most demanding workload job demand tasks to least demanding workload job demand tasks. In this case, the lower the mean indicates the more demanding the task is (as SLIEs were directed to rank items from 1-20 and instructed to mark the most demanding as 1 to

least demanding as 20). The analysis showed the top six most demanding workload related job demands related directly to teaching:

1) Marking/Grading and assessing student work (mean =4.09)
2) Giving feedback to students (mean=4.12)
3) Teaching (mean=4.79)
4) Creating lesson plans (mean =5.50)
5) Meeting with students (mean =5.59)
6) Curriculum review/development (mean = 7.31)

Table 4.29 shows all 20 of the workload related job demand tasks in rank order from more demanding to less demanding. This was found by using the mean associated with each specific job demand. In the JDRS-IE SLIEs ranked tasks from 1 (most demanding) to 20 (lesser demanding), explaining why the job demand perceived the most demanding has the smallest mean. Note the clear distinction between the top six workload demands that directly relate to students, as mentioned above, to the rest of the workload demands (rank 6 and beyond) that appear more administrative in nature or not as time sensitive, to the demands that appear to possibly only impact some educators not all (e.g. coordinators).

Rank	Specific Job Demands	Mean
1	Marking/Grading/Assessing Student work	4.09
2	Feedback to students	4.12
3	Teaching	4.79
4	Creating Lesson plans	5.50
5	Meeting with Students	5.59
6	Curriculum Review/Development	7.31
7	Administrative Paperwork	7.60
8	Developing Community Partnerships	7.98
9	Practicum/Field Experience	8.16
10	Creating New Courses	8.17
11	Resource Development	8.21
12	Coordination/Development	8.40
13	Accreditation Requirements and Related Responsibilities	9.09
14	Supervising Staff	10.18
15	Research Commitments	10.33
16	Academic Board Screening	11.14
17	Hiring/Recruitment Process	11.5
18	Admission Screening	11.68
19	Seeking Funding	12.5
20	Office Maintenance	13.33

Table 4.29 Ranking of Job Demand Category: Workload

In order to manage such job demands, SLIEs should have enough time and human resources in order to manage their workload related job demands. Although SLIEs were not asked specifically if they were satisfied with the amount of time they had, it was identified in sections 4.3.7 and 4.3.10 that SLIEs felt they had limited time, but prioritised students over other workload related tasks. Therefore, SLIEs give priority to the most demanding aspects of their job. This finding aligns well with the finding that SLIEs perceive student expectations as the most demanding job demand category.

4.4.3 Job Demand: Personal

The third most demanding job demand category is the personal category. This is defined as the commitments that educators have outside the workplace. Due to these external commitments, additional pressure may be placed on the educator. Examples of these demands include family, furthering their own education (formal education or professional development related), or community commitments (such as attending a silent dinner or deaf community fundraiser).

Table 4.30 shows personal related job demands. As previously stated the lower the mean the more demanding the SLIEs view the task.

Rank	Specific Job Demands	Mean
1	Family	1.76
2	Educational Pursuits	1.94
3	Hobbies	2.59

Chapter 4 Table 4.30 Ranking of Job Demands: Personal

Chapter 6 explores how the personal job demand category was perceived as how work life impedes personal life rather than impeding work life. Family demands are the most demanding of SLIEs, and therefore it may be assumed they often find their attention divided between work and family. This is followed by their educational pursuits (mean =1.94) and followed by Hobbies (2.59). Hobbies is clearly much less demanding on SLIEs than the other two specific personal related job demands.

4.4.4 Job Demand Category: External

SLIEs rated external demands as the fourth most demanding job demand category. The external job demand category is defined as, "Demands placed on the educator by stakeholders outside the higher education institution such as the deaf community, interpreting community or other professional organisations."

The findings in this category do relate to the findings presented in section 4.7. As these external groups can either add additional layers of pressure or serve as supportive entities. According to the satisfaction rankings, there is a distinction between the support from the deaf community and from the interpreting community, as seen in Table 4.38. There is a perception amongst SLIEs that the deaf community (mean= 0.68) is much more supportive than the interpreting community (mean= 0.45), a difference of 0.23. This is a distinct difference as the top three support areas are rated at a 0.8-0.6 and interpreting community drops to .4. Participants appear to feel their external colleagues, rather than internal, are the most supportive of the group. These findings align with the findings revealed in Table 4.31, as SLIEs perceive the interpreting community to be the most demanding external demand.

Rank	Specific Job Demands	Mean
1	Interpreting Community	1.78
2	Deaf Community	1.95
3	Professional Organisations	2.40

Table 4.31 Ranking of Job Demand Category: External

The job resources that would be most important for managing this job demand are mostly financial resources, support, and time. As financial resources could help strengthen relationships with external community members by encouraging their participation as guest speakers, mentors, practicum placement supervisors, etc. The level of support educators receive by these communities is also instrumental in managing related demands. Finally, having the time available to strengthen the relationships with the external stakeholders would be important as well. The most demanding aspect of the external job demand category is the interpreting community (mean =1.78), this is followed by the deaf community (mean=1.95) and finally professional organisations is with the mean= 2.40. This shows there is a relatively large difference between how demanding SLIEs feel about demands from interpreting communities and from professional organisations (0.62).

4.4.5 Job Demand Category: Higher Education Constraints

Higher education constraints are defined as the "organisational structures and policies that frame the work environment." Specific aspects of this job demand category are displayed with their mean in Table 4.32.

Rank	Specific Job Demands	Mean
1	Student Contact Hours	2.61
2	Program Duration	3.12
3	Student Numbers	3.17
4	Organisational Structure	3.49
5	Grading Structure	3.77
6	Policy	5.04

Table 4.32 Ranking of Job Demand Category: Higher Education Constraints

The most demanding aspect of this job demand category appears to be the amount of student contact hours followed by programme duration and student numbers. Respondent statements within the JDRS-IE provide further insight into their perspectives on higher education constraints and are described in Chapter 6.

4.5 Job Resource Categories: Essentiality & Satisfaction

In addition to ranking job demand categories and specific job demands, SLIEs were also asked to rank the job resource categories from most essential to least essential and their satisfaction levels with aspects of those job resource categories.

Rank (most essential to least essential)	Job Resource Category	Definitions	Mean
1	Time	The amount of time available	3.1
2	Classroom Materials	Books, Videos, Equipment/Technology	3.45
3	Program Components	Curriculum	3.92
4	Motivation	The internal and external factors that keep the educators going.	4.12
5	Support	Physical and emotional support the educators receive personally or professionally	4.47
6	Professional Development	Feedback through appraisal and evaluation as well as the training received through conference, seminar and workshop attendance.	5.09
7	Financial Resources	Programme specific funding, salary	5.20
8	Human Resources	Staff	5.47
9	Facilities	Buildings, classrooms, labs	5.76
10	Administration/ Management	Expertise, Management Style	6.55

Table 4.33 Job Resource Categories

Table 4.40 shows the results of the SLIEs' perceptions of the most essential job resources, which have been ranked from most essential (rank=1) to least essential (rank=10); in this case, the lower the mean, the more important the resource category. Each of these categories includes specific aspects of the resources. The next section explores SLIEs' levels of satisfaction with the various resources each of these categories represents.

4.5.1 Job Resource Categories: Satisfaction

Satisfaction levels with job resources are explored in depth in this section. The mean indicates the aggregate level of satisfaction with each statement. Responses range from generally satisfied to generally unsatisfied and the scale is presented in Table 4.41. Note that the terms of the scale used in the analysis are different than those included in the original questionnaire. For example, SLIEs were to agree or disagree that they were satisfied or not with the identified resource. Therefore, responses that indicate 'strongly agree' are interpreted as 'very satisfied'. Thus in this section of the results, the term generally satisfied suggests that the majority of SLIEs show levels of 'very satisfied' with specific resources. This idea of 'very satisfied' or 'strongly agree' better represents an individual rather than an

entire group. Very satisfied is quantified as 2, considering there was never a perfect 2 when looking at the aggregate results are interpreted as 'generally satisfied'. The same goes for 'moderately.' Therefore, the scale in Table 4.34 indicates the means closer to 2 designates satisfaction and means closer to -2 designate dissatisfaction. Means near zero indicate neutrality.

Mean Range	Interpretation
1.01 to 2.00	Generally Satisfied
.51 to 1.00	Moderately Satisfied
-.50 to .50	Neutral
-.51 to -1.00	Moderately Dissatisfied
-1.01 to 2.00	Generally Dissatisfied

Table 4.34 Scale for Job Resource Satisfaction

There are 52 resource variables rated for levels of satisfaction. Using this scale, it has been concluded there are only two items for which SLIEs are generally satisfied and 13 items for which SLIEs are moderately satisfied. Additionally, there is only one item for which SLIEs are generally dissatisfied and two items for which they are moderately dissatisfied. This leaves 33 items for which SLIEs are neutrally satisfied. Similar to the previous sections documenting a high level of neutrality it is important to unpack what the responses show by presenting the individual data points.

Although there are 52 variables, resources will be ranked out of 51, as two variables had the same mean. Therefore, they are distinguished by a lowercase 'a' and 'b'. The associated ranking number is in parentheses.

4.5.2 Job Resources: Generally satisfied-Moderately Satisfied

SLIEs appear most satisfied with resources they themselves embody such as internal motivation and intelligence. **'**Motivation' is defined in the JDRS-IE as the "job resource category defined as the internal and external factors that keep the educators going". The mean response for internal motivation is 1.27, which is 0.21 higher than the next highest rated job resource. Although not rated as highly as internal motivation, external motivation (rank=16) was also explored and SLIEs were moderately satisfied with this resource (mean =-.54). These ideas are explored further in relation to the literature in the discussion; as research shows motivation is a resource and correlates to one's job performance.

Coping strategy resources are controls used to respond to stressful situations and while not one coping strategy will work for all people, Gmelch et al. (1984) provides 7 possible

strategies that have been previously used with educators which were incorporated into the JDRS-IE**.** Coping strategies appear to be key area of satisfaction amongst the SLIEs. Five of seven potential coping strategies resources were rated as areas of moderate to general satisfaction. After internal motivation, intelligence (Rank= 2) is the next highest mean (=1.06) and is the only other resource with a rating of general satisfaction. SLIEs were moderately satisfied with four other coping strategies, Social (Rank=6), Attitudinal (Rank=7), Physical (Rank=11) and Personal (Rank=14). The final two coping strategies, Entertainment (Rank=23) and managerial (Rank=24) were categorised as neutral.

The resource category 'support', defined as the physical and emotional support SLIEs receive personally or professionally was an area of moderate satisfaction amongst SLIEs, as they were moderately satisfied with collegial support from both internal and external colleagues. External colleagues (Rank=3) have been rated higher than internal colleagues (Rank=12) with a difference in mean of .22. SLIEs were also moderately satisfied with their local deaf community (Rank=8). Other external resources, such as professional organisations and professional interpreters were categorised as neutral and explored further in sections 4.5.3

All of the resources linked to the resource category 'classroom materials', which include books, videos, and other needed equipment and technology, indicated a neutral result and are explored further in the next section except for office supplies (Rank=4a). Office supplies (pens, highlighters paper) were rated as moderately satisfied (mean =0.81). There was a .34 difference between office supplies and all other classroom material related such as hardware (Rank=17), books (Rank=20), software (Rank=22), sign language videos (Rank=34), and interpreting videos (Ranke=43), which rank much lower and are explored more closely in the next section.

The administrative/resource category specifically referring to the expertise (Rank=4b) and office supplies as related to classroom materials (Rank=4a) have the same mean of 0.81. Although this is not the qualitative section of the report, after review of the qualitative responses associated with this question, it does not appear that all SLIEs linked the resource category 'Administration' to the specific resource 'Expertise'. This question intended to gauge the satisfaction levels SLIEs had with the expertise of their administrators. However, a few comments implied SLIEs had interpreted the question in regards to their own expertise (e.g. "I will never be satisfied with my own expertise. There is always more to learn" or "I

am competent and keep up with trends in the field"). On the contrary, some comments indicate an understanding of the question (e.g. "there is no one around who has the expertise I need" and "Administration is supportive with [higher education institution] business, they respect we are content experts"). Therefore, although the mean (0.81) indicates a satisfaction rate relatively high, it is possible some SLIEs were considering their own areas of expertise rather than of their administration, creating results similar to 'intelligence', the resource SLIEs were generally satisfied with and the second most satisfied resource.

The job resource category 'Professional Development' is defined as, "feedback through appraisal and evaluation as well as the training received through conference, seminar and workshop attendance, explored appraisal/evaluation specifically from administrators, colleagues, and students as well as internal/external trainings, workshops, conferences and mentorship". The only area considered moderately satisfied in this category was student feedback/evaluation (mean = 0.8). All other areas have a neutral response and explored further in the next section.

Facility and programme components are the final categories to be highlighted of those included in the moderately to generally satisfied section. Facilities are defined as buildings, classrooms, and labs and respondent results have identified the office space and workroom as areas of moderate satisfaction. The office space ranked ninth with a mean of 0.637 and workroom ranked tenth with a mean of 0.634. Other facilities, such as classrooms, and interpreting labs are explored in the next section as results indicate neutrality. In terms of programme components and the curriculum (Rank=13), respondent results suggest moderate satisfaction (mean=0.59). Although curriculum was the only job resource under the programme component job resource category, the JDRS-IE survey included a space to include additional programme components and identify their level of satisfaction with such component (see: Chapter 6, section 6.6). Table 4.35 ranks the specific job resources, their mean, and the job resource category for which SLIEs are moderately to generally satisfied. This data set shows there are aspects from seven of the job resource categories where SLIEs indicate higher levels of satisfaction.

Order	Category	Specific Resources	Mean
1	Motivation	Internal Motivation	1.26
2	Coping Strategy	Intelligence	1.06
3	Support	External Collegial Support	0.83
4a	Classroom	Office Supplies	0.81

Order	Category	Specific Resources	Mean
	Materials		
4b	Administration/Management	Expertise	0.81
5	Professional Development	Student Evaluations	0.8
6	Coping Strategy	Social	0.74
7	Coping strategy	Attitude	0.68
8	Support	Deaf Community	0.67
9	Facilities	Office Space	0.637
10	Facilities	Workroom	0.634
11	Coping strategy	Physical	0.62
12	Support	Internal Collegial	0.61
13	Program Component	Curriculum	0.59
14	Coping strategy	Personal	0.545
15	Motivation	External Motivation	0.542

Table 4.35 Rank Job Resources – Moderately to Generally Satisfied

The following section explores results with a neutral response. In order to see where the responses leaned towards satisfaction or dissatisfaction, data from each resource is examined in subsequent sections.

4.5.3 Job Resources: Neutral

This section describes the job resources that are categorised as neutral. These resources cover eight of the eleven job resource categories: 1) Administration and management; 2) Classroom Materials; 3) Facilities; 4) Financial Resources; 5) Human Resources; 6) Professional Development; 7) Support; 8) Coping Strategies. Each item is listed in the Table 4.36 in order of highest mean to lowest mean, showing the specific resource, its mean, and the associated job resource category.

Rank	Job Resource Category	Specific Resources	Mean
16	Facility	Classroom	0.5
17	Classroom Materials	Hardware	0.48
18	Professional Development	External Trainings	0.46
19	Support	Interpreting Community	0.45
20	Classroom Materials	Books	0.43
21	Human Resources	Administration (Secretarial)	0.41
22	Classroom	Software	0.40

Rank	Job Resource Category	Specific Resources	Mean
	Materials		
23	Coping Strategy	Entertainment	0.36
24	Copping strategy	Managerial	0.33
25	Support	Professional Organisations	0.31
26	Administration/Management	Support	0.30
27	Professional development	Evaluations from colleagues	0.27
28	Support	IT	0.22
29	Facilities	Sign Language Interpreting Lab	0.2
30	Support	Support from the Administration/Management	0.17
31	Human resources	Teachers	0.16
32	Facilities	Other Facilities	0.11
33	Support	Partnerships (Businesses and Organisations)	0.08
34	Classroom Materials	Sign Language Videos	0.07
35	Professional Development	Mentorship	0.036
36	Professional Development	Internal Trainings	-0.030
37	Professional Development	Other Professional Development	-0.033
38	Program Component	Other Program Components	-0.04
39	Financial resources	Salary	-0.06
40	Professional development	Evaluations from Administration	-0.08
41	Coping strategy	Other Coping Strategies	-0.10
42	Classroom Materials	Other Classroom Materials	-0.10
43	Classroom Materials	Sign Language Interpreting Videos	-0.22
44	Financial resources	Program Funding	-0.29
45	Human resources	Other Human Resources	-0.35
46	Human resources	Lab Assistants	-0.36
47	Professional development	Other Evaluations	-0.45
48	Financial resources	Other Financial Resources	-0.48

Table 4.36 Rank Job Resources: – Neutrally Satisfied

Due to the neutral response rate indicated by the data, individual data points are described below. With that said, those specific resources with negative means, while they are considered neutral, there is a lean toward dissatisfaction rather than satisfaction.

4.5.4 Job Resource Category: Financial Resources (neutral)

Statements included in the financial resources category have a neutral response. Table 4.37 has included the individual responses from the survey relating to financial resources. It shows the order in which the resources rank, noting there are fifty-two total variables and ranked out of fifty-one due to two resources have equivalent means. Responses that strongly agree to the statement were interpreted as very satisfied, agreed as satisfied, disagreed as dissatisfied and strongly disagreed as very dissatisfied.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
39	Salary	4	28	16	12	6
44	Programme Funding	4	22	10	18	12
48	Other: Funding Related	2	4	21	0	39

Table 4.37 Rank Job Resource Category: Financial Resources Satisfaction

Although the variable 'other funding related' (Rank=48) showed many dissatisfied SLIEs, there were no elaborations included in the comment section providing any additional insight, rendering it impossible to identify what the 'other: funding related' resources were. Since this variable cannot be interpreted consistently, and in order to maintain validity, it has been excluded from further analysis. Therefore, salary and programme funding are the two specific job resources examined further. Regarding programme funding (Rank= 44), twenty-two SLIEs demonstrate a degree of satisfaction while eighteen indicate a degree of dissatisfaction. At first glance, SLIEs lean towards satisfied; however, more SLIEs are strongly dissatisfied than strongly satisfied. The total sum of those satisfied (n=26) and the total sum of those dissatisfied (n=28) are close indicating that satisfaction levels of SLIEs are divided, but leaning toward dissatisfaction.

In terms of salary (Rank=40), a large number of SLIEs are satisfied (n=28) and a small number are very satisfied (n=4); unlike the dissatisfied categories, which are more evenly divided with sixteen dissatisfied and twelve SLIEs very dissatisfied. The total sums of

satisfied responses and dissatisfied responses again show a close with 32 SLIEs having a degree of satisfaction and 28 SLIEs showing a degree of dissatisfaction. Yet, in this case, responses lean slightly towards satisfaction.

4.5.5 Job Resource Category: Professional Development (neutral)

The job resources associated with the professional development category resulted in a neutral rating, whereas for student evaluations, explained above, SLIEs were moderately satisfied. The specific professional development related resources included in the table below are feelings of satisfaction with appraisal and evaluation from administration and colleagues, as well as internal and external trainings and mentorship. The table includes the order in which the resource rates out of 52 variables, with two variables being equal leaving the lowest ranked variable at 51.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
18	External Trainings	17	24	15	7	3
27	Evaluations from colleagues	8	29	15	7	7
35	Mentorship	7	24	12	12	11
37	Internal Trainings	7	25	15	13	6
39	Other Evaluation	2	3	14	1	46
40	Evaluations from Administration	8	20	21	10	7

Table 4.38 Rank Job Resource Category: Professional Development Satisfaction

As provided in Table 4.38, responses in satisfaction regarding professional development vary. However, the majority of the responses do lean towards feelings of satisfaction. Two variables show distinct higher feelings of satisfaction: 'External trainings' and 'evaluations from colleagues'. The variable, 'external training' has 19 more SLIEs showing levels of satisfaction than dissatisfaction and there are 15 more SLIEs who show a degree of satisfaction with evaluations from colleagues than dissatisfaction.

Mentorship and internal trainings, as forms of professional development, have the least amount of difference between them. Although SLIEs still lean towards satisfaction, there are more participants experiencing degrees of dissatisfaction. For example, with mentorship, 31 SLIEs show satisfaction and 24 SLIEs are dissatisfied, which is a difference of seven. Likewise, 32 SLIEs are satisfied with internal training and 28 SLIEs are dissatisfied a difference of only four SLIEs.

The final specific job resource variable 'evaluations from administration' included in the professional development job resource category leans slightly towards feelings of dissatisfaction. With 31 responses indicating a degree of dissatisfaction, 28 responses have a degree of satisfaction- a difference of three responses. The evaluations from students, colleagues, and the administration are included in Table 4.39.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
6	Evaluations from Students	11	43	9	2	1
28	Evaluations from colleagues	8	29	15	7	7
41	Evaluations from Administration	8	20	21	10	7

Table 4.39 Job Resources: Professional Development Satisfaction

As provided in the table above, the experiences SLIEs have in terms of the feedback/appraisal they receive from the various members of the higher education institution (students, colleagues, administration) are inconsistent. However, the data suggests experiences with student and peer evaluations are much more positive than those from the administration.

4.5.6 Job Resource Category: Human Resources (neutral)

The survey assessed the SLIEs' satisfaction with human resources at their higher education institution, including teachers. Table 4.40 provides the rank, the specific job resource, and how many of sixty-six responses were categorised as very satisfied, satisfied, dissatisfied, very dissatisfied, or N/A.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
22	Administrative (Office Staff)	9	37	5	12	3
32	Teachers	5	34	12	11	4
46	Other Human Resources	3	3	15	1	44
47	Lab Assistant	4	15	13	13	21

Table 4.40 Job Resources Category: Human Resources Satisfaction

A majority of the SLIEs (n=46) have a degree of satisfaction with the office staff at their higher education institution. With that said, one quarter of the SLIEs have a degree of

dissatisfaction with the office staff, with 12 of those dissatisfied or very dissatisfied. There is slightly more of a divide between feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction regarding teachers than the responses indicated with the office staff. Over half of the SLIEs (n=39) suggest feelings of satisfaction with their academic colleagues. There are 23 responses leaning towards dissatisfaction, 11 of which are strongly dissatisfied. There are few "N/A" responses to the secretarial staff/teachers, which indicates SLIEs either do not have or need this particular resource or they do not have an opinion about their level satisfaction with this resource.

Results from the resource identified as, "Other Human Resources" are difficult to interpret. Of the 15 SLIEs identified being dissatisfied with their human resources, only 4 identified what those specific human resource needs are (e.g. supports for online course development, a lab coordinator, support personal for fieldwork/practicum/internship courses, and supervisors/mentors.) While these examples are limited, it provides us further insight into the needed resources as perceived by SLIEs.

4.5.7 Job Resource Category: Classroom Materials (neutral)

Table 4.41 organises the responses in terms of satisfaction levels with classroom materials that have a neutral mean.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
17	Hardware	18	20	10	7	11
20	Books	11	30	5	9	11
22	Software	11	27	12	5	11
34	Sign Language Videos	12	19	11	10	14
42	Other Classroom Materials	3	4	1	8	50
41	Sign Language Interpreting Videos	10	13	16	16	11

Table 4.41 Job Resources Category: Classroom Materials

If SLIEs strongly agreed with the statement, it shows they are very satisfied with the particular resource. Other than the office supplies (Rank=4a), which was categorised as moderately satisfied, all other classroom material resources have been identified as neutral.

The data in Table 4.41 reveals the majority of classroom material resources SLIEs demonstrate higher degrees of satisfaction with exception to sign language interpreting

videos (Rank=41), which have a higher rate of dissatisfaction. Hardware (Rank=17) and software (Rank=22) have the same overall number of response suggesting feelings of satisfaction (total satisfied responses =38) and the same number of responses suggesting feelings of dissatisfaction (total dissatisfied responses =17) even though the numbers are distributed differently. Although the numbers lean positive, not all SLIEs are having positive experiences with hardware and software related resources.

Books (Rank=20) appear to be a resource the majority of SLIEs are satisfied with, as forty-one SLIEs show a degree of satisfaction and fourteen show a degree of dissatisfaction. Videos specific to sign language also demonstrated a degree of satisfaction with thirty-one responses showing feelings of satisfaction and twenty-one showing dissatisfaction, a difference of ten responses. This is opposite than the videos specifically related to sign language interpreting, where SLIEs show higher feelings of dissatisfaction (Rank=32) than feelings of satisfaction (Rank=23), a difference of nine. Videos relating to sign language interpreting appear to be the classroom material resource that SLIEs are the least satisfied with.

Other course materials had a high degree of N/A responses (N=50); there were seven satisfied and nine showing feelings of dissatisfaction. However, the comment space provided for educators to elaborate on these materials is limited. One comment suggests video resources need to be available in digital formats.

4.5.8 Job Resource Category: Coping Strategy (neutral)

Although the majority of coping strategies were identified as areas of moderate satisfaction amongst responses, entertainment (Rank=23), management (Rank=24), and other coping strategies (Rank=41) had neutral means.

Chapter 4 Table 4.49 Job Resources Category: Coping Strategy

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
23	Entertainment	5	29	7	4	21
24	Management	8	28	8	7	15
41	Other Coping Strategies	2	3	0	7	54

Table 4.42 Job Resources Category: Coping Strategy

These numbers indicate the majority of those who responded (excluding N/A responses) regarding entertainment and management coping skills, are satisfied. This shows that SLIEs

are satisfied with all coping strategies explored within the JDRS-IE. Again, these are resources that SLIEs bring with them and are not provided by the higher education institution. The majority of SLIEs did not have an opinion on other coping strategies (Rank=54) and those who did disagree did not provide examples of other coping strategies. Therefore, the variable, 'other coping strategies', has been excluded from further analysis.

4.5.9 Job Resource Category: Other Program Component (neutral)

Curriculum was the only variable to explicitly examine programme components within the JDRS-IE. Quantitatively, SLIEs were moderately satisfied with curriculum as a programme component. The second question of the programme component job resource category was open ended for participants to respond. The results are shown in Table 4.43 below.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
38	Other Programme Component	3	4	1	6	52

Table 4.43 Job Resources Category: Other Program Component Satisfaction

There are similar responses in terms of satisfaction (n= 7) and dissatisfaction (n= 7), with a large response rate of N/A (n=52). Again, although this is not the qualitative analysis section of the report, the comments indicated that programme components, such as flexibility in programme delivery and improved programme design, are considered important factors related to programme components. The individual who commented about programme flexibility was satisfied with programme components, and the person who mentioned programme design disagreed with the programme design. Other than the two identified responses, it is impossible to determine what the SLIEs were referring to by their selections of 'other programme components'.

4.5.10 Job Resource Category: Support (neutral)

The job resource 'support' category is to describe the physical and emotional support educators receive personally and professionally. The JDRS-IE explored different ways in which an educator could receive support to manage their job demands. Support received from the deaf community, and internal/external colleagues have been identified as resources that SLIEs are moderately satisfied with. However, the interpreting community, professional interpreting associations/organisations, IT, administration/management, and partnerships

with external bodies came back with a neutral rating. The numbers with these resources are included in Table 4.44.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
19	Interpreter Community	9	35	16	4	2
25	Professional interpreting associations or organisations	8	35	9	11	3
28	IT	6	33	15	8	4
30	Administration/Management	7	31	18	8	2
33	Partnerships	2	33	18	6	9

Chapter 4 Table 4.44 Job Resources Category: Support Satisfaction

In each category, over half of the SLIEs show a degree of satisfaction with the support they receive from the various individuals, departments, and professional bodies. Over a quarter of the SLIEs show a level of dissatisfaction with each support variable. The highest noted area of dissatisfaction for these resources are with the support felt from the administration/management (n= 26). Very few SLIEs selected N/A.

4.5.11 Job Resource Category: Facilities (neutral)

Of the four specific facilities examined— 1) office space 2) workroom 3) classroom, and 4) sign language interpreting labs—the former two showed SLIEs were moderately satisfied. However, the latter are discussed here as they have neutral means. The classroom variable ranked sixteen is the first resource variable in the neutral group. As seen in Table 4.45, the majority of the SLIEs (n=43) have indicated a degree of satisfaction with their classrooms.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
16	Classroom	12	31	8	7	8
29	Sign Language Interpreting Lab	13	14	12	8	19
32	Other Facilities	3	3	2	1	57

Chapter 4 Table 4.45 Job Resources Category: Facilities Satisfaction

The difference between degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the responses regarding the sign language interpreting lab is seven, which is much less than the difference between satisfied and dissatisfied of the classroom variable (n=28). Although 27 SLIEs

(which is less than half) demonstrate a level of satisfaction, 20 SLIEs have a degree of dissatisfaction.

The 'other facilities' variable required SLIEs to provide the other variable within the comment box. Although the majority of SLIEs (n=57) opted for N/A, those who did report levels of disagreement suggested they need additional facilities, such as lunchrooms, spaces for students to gather, and more recording rooms.

4.5.12 Job Resource Category: Administrative/Management (neutral)

The final job resource category to be included in neutral is 'administration/management', which relates to the expertise and management style of those running the department/university. SLIEs were asked about the feelings of support from the administration/management within this category and within the job resource category of support described above. Table 4.46 shows the results directly related to the job resource category of administration and management.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
26	Support	10	29	13	8	6

Chapter 4 Table 4.46: Job Resources Category: Administrative Satisfaction

These results are very similar to the responses received in the support category. They indicate that over half of the SLIEs have feelings of satisfaction regarding the support received from their administration. A little over a quarter of SLIEs do not share the feelings of support and these feelings are further explored in Chapter 6, section 6.7.

4.5.13 Moderately Dissatisfied - Generally Satisfied

In addition to the areas that leaned toward dissatisfaction above, variables that have resulted in clear feelings of dissatisfaction amongst the SLIEs are: 1) Other Motivation; 2) Research Funding; 3) Research Assistants.

Regarding the variable 'other motivation', although there was another category listed for all resources, ultimately this question needs to be excluded as there are no other sources of motivation other than internal/external that have already been categorised as motivation and therefore, 'other motivation' should not have been included in the survey and therefore it is not included in Table 4.54. Thus the variables SLIEs are moderately to generally dissatisfied with are research funding and research assistants presented in Table 4.47.

Rank	Specific Job Resource	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	N/A
51	Research Funding	4	8	10	15	29
52	Research assistants	1	4	13	14	34

Table 4.54: Job Resources Category: Moderately – Generally Dissatisfied

Both resources have a high number of SLIEs who selected N/A. Most likely, this has to do with the higher education institution they work for not requiring or emphasising research as seen in section 4.3.2. There are still a higher number of SLIEs who are not satisfied with the funding allocated for research, as well as the lack of staff to assist with research.

While sections 4.3-4.5 have used descriptive statistics to analyse the data, correlation statistics provide the strength of the linear association and are used to better understand the associations, if any. Therefore, section 4.6 provides greater precision to the analysis by describing the relationships between statements within the JDRS-IE using Pearson's Product Movement correlation.

4.6 Correlation Statistics: Perceptions of Job Demands and Job Resources

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to measure the strength of relationship between variables. Correlation does not provide a cause and effect relationship; only that a relationship exists between two variables. Correlations range from -1 to +1, in which values close to +1 indicate a positive correlation and values close to -1 indicate a negative correlation. If two variables share a positive association, as one increases, so will the other. However, if they share a negative association, as one variable increases, the other will decrease. Correlations close to zero indicate there is not a statistically significant relationship.

As there were 171 variables, this section describes the results from only correlations that were both meaningful and statistically significant. Meaningful relationships are those that are supported by empirical justification and statistically significant relationships are those in which Pearson's r indicates a statistical association between the two variables. In the next sections, the numbers in parentheses indicate the Pearson correlation coefficient and the asterisks indicate the level of significance (i.e., one asterisk indicates a 95% confidence level and two asterisks indicate a 99% confidence level). This section presents the results using the following three categories: 1) Workload 2) Job Demands 3) Student Readiness. Sections

are organised by first presenting negative correlations, followed by the positive correlations and concluded with a summary of the correlation results for each category.

4.6.1 Workload: Negative Correlations

This section provides the statements that are negatively correlated with workload (as measured by '25.2. My workload negatively impacts the quality and relevance of the curriculum). The results concluded that when SLIEs workloads became less manageable they were unable to manage their demands as well. This meant that they found themselves unable to teach everything that needed to be covered in the term and struggled to keep up with their work. Furthermore, those SLIEs who felt their workload was unmanageable also saw their resources as being insufficient to meet their demands. Table 4.48 shows each statement and significance level that had a negative correlation result.

Statements	Significance
25.37: I can teach everything I need to teach in the duration of the programme.	-.423**
25.1: I effectively manage my work demands.	-.417**
26.14: Although my job demands are high, I have sufficient resources to manage such demands.	-.375**
25.32: I believe I have all the resources I need to be an effective teacher.	-.372**
25.30: My colleagues serve as a resource and I utilise them to improve my teaching.	-.349**
26.2: My workload does not affect student-learning outcomes	-.347**
25.22: I have time to strengthen and improve curriculum when needed.	-.338**
26.23: My job performance is consistent throughout each semester	-.337**
25.29: I feel supported in the workplace.	-.317**
25.13: I stay up to date on current literature and best practices for teaching sign language interpreting students.	-.310*
26.20: I believe our programme meets all of our student's needs.	-.308*
25.21: I have sufficient resources and manage my job demands effectively.	-.302*
25.16: The curriculum I follow is up to date.	-.289*

Table 4.48 Workload Negative Correlations

4.6.2 Workload: Positive Correlations

This section shows statistically significant and logically meaningful statements that have a positive correlation with perception of workload as measured by '25.2. My workload negatively impacts the quality and relevance of the curriculum'. Those who observed

workload to have a negative impact particularly related it to negatively impacting the student learning experience. SLIEs also saw how workload impacts their overall job performance and find themselves reducing student workload to align with their own. These correlations reveal that those who are struggling with workload are also in need of resources that they believe will positively impact the student learning experience. However, in the midst of these challenges, while workload is having a negative impact on the educators, they are still prioritising students and making time to develop their lesson plans, and attending to assessment and feedback activities. Table 4.49 shows each of the statements included in the questionnaire and their significance.

Statements	Significance
26.1: Student learning suffers because of the many demands I face.	.681**
26.38: Student learning suffers because of my high job demand and low resources.	.610**
26.7: My students know I am stressed.	.525**
25.47: I reduce student workload to align with my own.	.501**
26.19: My workload impacts the quality and relevance of teaching delivery.	.476**
26.19: My workload impacts the quality and relevance of teaching delivery.	.476**
26.11: I lack resources and because of this my performance suffers and student learning is affected.	.464**
25.9: Failing students requires me to do more work than if they pass.	.353**
26.27: I often think that if I had more resources students graduating our programme would have better skill sets.	.310*
25.19:I have time to create new and revamp old lesson plans	.300*
25.3: Marking in sign language interpreter education requires more of my time than of my colleagues in other disciplines.	.289*
25.44: Time is my most valuable resource.	.250*

Table 4.49 Workload Significant Negative Correlations

4.6.3 Summary of Workload: Correlation Results

These correlated statements indicate workload demands negatively impact SLIEs' performance. Specifically, SLIEs lack the time, support, and resources to effectively manage their workload and as workload becomes less manageable, they are less confident in their abilities, as well as their support and resources. Moreover, the data indicates a strong relationship between the beliefs that student learning suffers due to high job demand and low resources, and how workload negatively impacts their own job performance. As lack of

resources, lack of compensated hours worked, and visible stress increases, the SLIEs feel their ability to meet workload demands decreases.

4.6.4 Job Demands: Negative Correlations

The following statements relate to job demands, which are negatively correlated with the perception of high job demands based on statement 25.45: 'My job demands are high.' Therefore, those who were experiencing high job demands, also observed that their work life and personal life was not balanced, which relates to them not having the time to strengthen and develop course curricula, research, publish and disseminate information, or even have enough time to meet with students. These SLIEs who perceived their job demands as high did not have enough resources to manage demands and thereby they felt to be ineffective teachers. These SLIEs also became increasingly dissatisfied with human resources (e.g. having enough academic staff), physical coping strategies (e.g. exercise) and programme funding. Table 4.50 shows each of the statements that are negatively correlated with 'my job demands are high' and their significance.

Statements	Significance
25.26: I feel my work life and personal life are well balanced	-.447**
41.4: Research Assistants - "I am satisfied how much of this resource I have"*satisfaction decreased	-.372*
41.1: Teachers - "I am satisfied how much of this resource I have"	-.368**
40.3: Salary - "I am satisfied how much of this resource I have"	-.344*
40.1: Programme Funding -: "I am satisfied how much of this resource I have"	-.315*
25.22: I have time to strengthen and improve curriculum when needed.	-.296*
25.25: I have time to research, publish and disseminate information	-.294
25.21: I have sufficient resources and manage my job demands effectively.	-.268*
37.2: Physical - "I am satisfied how much of this resource I have"	-.265*
25.32: I believe I have all the resources I need to be an effective teacher	-.257*
26.2: My workload does not affect student-learning outcomes.	-.252*
25.11: I have time to meet with students 1:1 if they need.	-.250*
25.26: I feel my work life and personal life are well balanced	-.447**

Table 4.50 Job Demands Significant Negative Correlations:

4.6.5 Job Demands: Positive Correlations:

Similarly, the following statements relate to job demands that are positively correlated with the perception of high job demands (25.45. 'My job demands are high'). Those SLIEs who

see their job demands as high also perceive that their teaching performance suffers and student learning is impacted. Further, while they see time to be their most valuable resource, they do not have enough of it and work more hours than they are compensated for and perceive the time they spend marking student work to take up more of their time than that of their colleagues in other disciplines. These relationships may also influence as to why they feel making the decision to pass or fail borderline students is difficult to make. Table 4.51 includes the significant positive correlations for high job demands and the significance of the correlation.

Statements	Significance
25.7: I work more hours than I am compensated for.	.608**
25.3: Marking in sign language interpreter education requires more of my time than of my colleagues in other disciplines.	.434**
25.44: Time is my most valuable resource.	.356**
26.11: I lack resources and because of this my performance suffers and student learning is affected.	.284*
26.7: My students know I am stressed.	.282*
25.20: The decision to pass or fail borderline students is difficult to make.	.248*

Table 4.51 Job Demands: Significant Positive Correlations

4.6.6 Summary of Job Demands: Correlation Results

The correlations presented in this section further emphasised the relationship between resources and perceptions of high job demands. Specifically, as satisfaction with resources decreases (such as research assistants, teachers, salary, programme funding, time, supplies), perceptions that job demands are high increase. SLIEs identified, when demands increase, they feel less satisfied with the provided resources and do not feel they are adequately supported in the workplace.

4.6.7 Student Readiness: Negative Correlations

Next, to understand the factors that are related to student readiness, correlated statements are provided for the following statement: 'I have passed borderline students who should have been held back.' Therefore those who have passed borderline students should have been held back also find they lack resources which impacts their effectiveness. They find their

curriculum to be out of date, and their programme to not effectively prepare students for professional practice. Furthermore these SLIEs are not collaborating with their colleagues. Table 4.52 shows that statements are negatively correlated with student readiness and their significance.

Statements	Significance
26.34: The higher education institution I work in is doing a good job in preparing students to work as interpreters	-.314*
26.14: Although my job demands are high, I have sufficient resources to manage such demands.	-.295*
25.51: My colleagues and I collaborate.	-.287*
25.32: I believe I have all the resources I need to be an effective teacher	-.282*
25.16: The curriculum I follow is up to date.	-.280*
26.20: I believe our programme meets all of our students' needs.	-.261*

Table 4.52 Student Readiness Significant Negative Correlations

4.6.8 Student Readiness: Positive Correlations

To understand the factors that are related to student readiness, correlated statements are provided for the following statement: 26.5: 'I have passed borderline students who should have been held back'. Those who have passed borderline students who should have been held back also experienced pressures from their administrators to meet student number requirements and pass students regardless of competency. Furthermore, these individuals also find that more work is required of them when their students fail. Certainly, this may influence why decisions are difficult to make about letting students who are borderline advance to the next course by allocating the passing mark. Those educators who have passed borderline students have seen how the programme duration negatively impacts students, and have been forced to reduce student workload to align with their own. They see how the quality of teaching delivery has been negatively impacted. Furthermore, they also find it stressful to follow the policies established by the higher education institution. Table 4.53 shows each of the statements that show a significant positive relationship with student readiness and their level of significance.

Statements	Significance
25.8: I feel pressure to pass students to meet student number requirements.	.653**
25.20: The decision to pass or fail borderline students is difficult to make.	.588**
26.33: The administration directly or indirectly pressures me to pass students regardless of competency.	.567**
25.47: I reduce student workload to align with my own	.511**
26.1: Student learning suffers because of the many demands I face.	.495**
26.19: My workload impacts the quality and relevance of teaching delivery.	.474**
26.38: Student learning suffers because of my high job demand and low resources.	.457**
26.32: Students lack skills because the programme is too short.	.432**
26.17: My personal life impacts my job performance.	.438**
26.7: My students know I am stressed.	.392**
25.41: Following policies established by the Higher Education Institution I work is stressful.	.373**
26.35: I often think student learning outcomes would improve if my hands were not always tied.	.346**
26.11: I lack resources and because of this my performance suffers and student learning is affected.	.336**
25.9: Failing students requires me to do more work than if they pass.	.276*
25.7: I work more hours than I am compensated for.	.257*

Table 4.53 Student Readiness: Significant Positive Correlations

4.6.9 Summary of Student Readiness: Correlation Results

The correlation results indicate that increases in pressure to pass students, workload, lack of resources, and stress are associated with passing borderline students who should have been held back. Moreover, decreases in collaboration and resources, out-of-date curriculum, and

programs not meeting student needs are also associated with passing unprepared students. As the correlation section indicates, there is a statistically significant relationship between numerous survey statements.

4.7 Perceptions of Job Demands, Job Resources and their Impact using Regression Statistics

To look at the relationships between the survey variables, multiple regression analysis was used to determine the interaction of many of these variables on select dependent variables. Using the survey data, regression results provide the following as statistically significant based on the p-values that accompanied the t-statistics. The results of the regression analysis are provided in this section. Additionally, refer to Appendix F to see the regression models, their associated hypothesis, and regression coefficient tables for all data presented in this section and to Appendix C for the JDRS-IE survey instrument. The following scale is used to identify significance, which is noted by the assigned asterisks.

Non-Significant = $P \geq 0.05$

* Significant = $P < 0.05$

** Very Significant = $P < 0.01$

*** Highly Significant = $P < 0.001$

The research hypothesised that one's workload impacts student-learning outcomes was confirmed by the data. One's workload*** (t=7.249) impacts student-learning outcomes, as does her country* (t=2.493). Workload and country were identified significant at $P<0.01$ and $P<0.001$ respectively. This suggests, when educators are overworked they may not deliver instruction as effectively as possible. Furthermore, student outcomes are also impacted by the country of study. Countries, where sign language interpreting is farther along in professionalising, may have better resources, and better equipped to support student learning than those countries who are further behind on the path to professionalisation. However, this is an area that will need to be explored further to better understand the impacts country has on student learning outcomes.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.978	1.358		.720	.475
	Country	-.406	.163	-.267	-2.493	.016
	Gender	.077	.520	.016	.148	.883
	Identity	.311	.439	.072	.709	.481
	Educ	.051	.173	.036	.294	.770
	TeachYears	.004	.025	.016	.147	.884
	CertSign	-1.793	.965	-.194	-1.858	.069
	EmpInstit	.018	.171	.011	.105	.917
	FTPT	-.662	.479	-.165	-1.383	.173
	Workload	.332	.046	.750	7.249	.000

a. Dependent Variable: StudOut

Table 4.54 Coefficient Table 1

The research hypothesised that pressures put on SLIEs by administration impacts their satisfaction with the administration. This was confirmed by the data. One's years of teaching experience* (t=-2.365), their employment status* (part-time/full-time) (t=2.508), the type of higher education institution (t=3.002), and student number pressures*** (t=-4.087) all impact the SLIEs' level of satisfaction with the administration. This indicates that the longer someone has been teaching and the more pressure they are receiving to increase student numbers, the less satisfied they are with their administration. However, part-time staff do not express as much dissatisfaction as full-time/permanent academics.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-3.491	2.249		-1.552	.127
	Country	.258	.263	.111	.981	.331
	Gender	-.237	.847	-.033	-.280	.781
	Identity	.129	.727	.020	.177	.860
	Educ	.234	.283	.110	.828	.411
	TeachYears	-.096	.041	-.281	-2.365	.022
	CertSign	2.366	1.569	.168	1.508	.138
	EmpInstit	.837	.279	.324	3.002	.004
	FTPT	1.881	.750	.309	2.508	.015
	NumbPress	-.819	.200	-.458	-4.087	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Admin

Table 4.55 Coefficient Table 2

The research hypothesised that lack of time will impact feelings of negativity regarding work demands and pressures. This was confirmed by the data. One's time demands*** (t=5.140), as well as years teaching* (t=2.069) and country* (t=-2.030), impacts one's perception of resources. (Note: Time demands was measured as an index of the following statements: 25.11, 25.17, 25.19, 25.22, 25.25, 25.28, 25.28, and 25.44). Time was confirmed as highly significant and indicates when SLIEs do not perceive they have enough time to manage their workload they will exhibit more feelings of negativity around their job, particularly about how they perceive the resources available to them

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.243	1.331		-.934	.355
	Country	-.320	.158	-.216	-2.030	.048
	Gender	-.629	.512	-.136	-1.228	.225
	Identity	-.515	.429	-.122	-1.202	.235
	Educ	-.262	.169	-.193	-1.547	.128
	TeachYears	.050	.024	.226	2.069	.044
	CertSign	1.534	.950	.170	1.616	.112
	EmpInstit	.265	.170	.161	1.561	.125
	FTPT	.567	.452	.146	1.257	.215
	Time	.266	.052	.525	5.140	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Resources

Table 4.56 Coefficient Table 3

The research hypothesised that time demands negatively impact student outcomes when controlling for country, gender, identity, level of education, identity, years of teaching experience, whether or not one is qualified as a sign language interpreter, the type of educational institution they work in, their employment status be it full-time or part time, one's time was the most important variable to impact student learning outcomes. This was confirmed by the data and is considered highly significant. One's time** (t=-2.945) impacts one's students' learning outcomes.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.644	1.789		.360	.721
	Country	-.234	.212	-.154	-1.107	.273
	Gender	.125	.689	.026	.181	.857
	Identity	.095	.576	.022	.165	.870
	Educ	.198	.228	.142	.871	.388
	TeachYears	-.016	.032	-.072	-.504	.617
	CertSign	-1.102	1.277	-.119	-.863	.392
	EmpInstit	.089	.228	.052	.388	.700
	FTPT	.291	.607	.073	.480	.633
	Time	-.205	.070	-.393	-2.945	.005

a. Dependent Variable: StudOut

Table 4.57 Coefficient Table 4

The research hypothesised that identifying as deaf impacts student preparedness. This was confirmed by the data and considered highly significant. One's identity** relating to being deaf (t=-2.941) impacts the preparedness of students' practice abilities.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.238	.753		.316	.753
	Country	.169	.094	.221	1.789	.079
	Identity	-.723	.246	-.371	-2.941	.005
	Educ	-.048	.101	-.070	-.475	.637
	TeachYears	.004	.015	.032	.238	.813
	CertSign	.240	.627	.052	.382	.704
	EmpInstit	.083	.106	.098	.784	.437
	FTPT	.417	.278	.209	1.498	.140
	WorkDem	-.004	.108	-.004	-.033	.974

a. Dependent Variable: 2625a

Table 4.58 Coefficient Table 5

The research hypothesised that high workloads result in students being passed that should have been held back. This was confirmed by the data and is considered highly significant. One's workload*** (t=4.370) and country*(t=-1.804) impacts the passing of students who are not ready to move forward.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.108	.762		1.454	.152
	Country	-.184	.102	-.220	-1.804	.077
	Educ	.041	.106	.054	.382	.704
	TeachYears	.001	.016	.006	.044	.965
	CertSign	-1.007	.637	-.197	-1.579	.120
	EmpInstit	-.087	.111	-.093	-.780	.439
	FTPT	-.306	.301	-.140	-1.018	.313
	Identity	.109	.256	.051	.427	.671
	Workload	.132	.030	.540	4.370	.000

a. Dependent Variable: 265a

Table 4.59 Coefficient Table 6

Finally, the research hypothesised that pressure from the administration results in students being held back that should have been passed. This was confirmed by the data and is considered highly significant. One's pressure from the administration*** (t=5.115) impacts her passing of borderline students who should have been held back.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.123	.727		1.544	.128
	Country	-.130	.095	-.155	-1.364	.178
	Educ	-.021	.103	-.028	-.202	.841
	TeachYears	.008	.016	.067	.525	.601
	CertSign	-.404	.616	-.079	-.656	.515
	EmpInstit	-.067	.106	-.072	-.634	.529
	FTPT	.134	.277	.061	.486	.629
	Identity	-.150	.246	-.070	-.608	.546
	2633a	.472	.092	.583	5.115	.000

a. Dependent Variable: 265a

Table 4.60 Coefficient Table 7

Additionally, the regression analysis produced the following findings as statistically significant, although not as directly aligned to the stated hypotheses relative to the aforementioned regression findings, and are flagged as areas for future research. Note all of the regression coefficient tables are provided in Appendix F.

- Continuing professional development and institutional service (t=-3.302), the structure and administration (t=2.624), and student support (t=2.122) impact staff.
- Time (t=3.465) and collaboration (t=-2.400) impact perception of resources.
- Student learning outcomes (t=4.509), student number requirements (t=2.640), and student number pressure (t=2.649) impact perception of workload.
- Workload (t=4.509) impacts student-learning outcomes.
- Administration (t=5.147), collaboration (t=3.220), and staff (t=-3.302) impact continuing PD and institutional service.
- Staffing concerns (e.g. number of human resources) (t=2.624) and continuing professional development opportunities (t=5.147) impact view of administration.
- Collaboration (t=-2.775) and workload (t=2.640) impact passing students.
- Workload (t=2.649) impacts student number pressure.
- Student support (t=2.008) impacts pressure and reputation.
- Collaboration (t=2.549), resources (t=3.404), and personal responsibility (t=2.086) impact time.
- Resources (t=-2.448), continuing professional development (t=3.260), student number requirements (t=-2.803), and time (t=2.549) impact collaboration.
- Staff concerns (t=2.227) and personal responsibility (t=3.904) impact student support.

Several areas were noted as significant, very significant and even highly significant and such variables not only help us understand experiences SLIEs have in the work place, we are also able to see links between such factors and student learning outcomes, which is key when wanting to understand the readiness to work gap and how sign language interpreter educators and their institutions influence that gap.

4.8 Summary

SLIEs perceive themselves in having high job demands and to be able to effectively manage such demands. However, SLIEs' experiences with resources are not homogeneous, and what some individuals may have access to, others do not. Many SLIEs perceive job demands they face, rather than unavailable resources, to have negative impacts on student learning (e.g. workload, higher education constraints). Results suggest that SLIEs in this study may not be managing their job demands as effectively as thought, and rather have a strong sense of self efficacy, managing as best as they can with what they have.

JD-R theory suggests that employees with limited job resources may be less able to manage their job demands, and therefore job demands negatively impact individual performance and performance of the organisation as a whole. This is due to job demands having an impact on an individual's overall wellbeing, specifically related to burnout and job resources to work engagement.

Many of the SLIEs in this study believe student assessment requires more work from educators within their discipline than of their colleagues in other disciplines. Considering student learning is a major priority, SLIEs prioritise teacher/student interactions whether it is through face to face meetings or the provision of feedback. Further, SLIEs believe feedback is instrumental to student learning and skill development. In the midst of other work related demands, SLIEs perceive they stay up to date on literature, and therefore able to keep their students informed of current and best practices within the interpreting profession.

Overall, SLIEs agreed their job performance matters and that it has an impact on student learning and it contributes to student readiness. SLIEs as a whole are putting pressure on themselves to do well and work hard. There are high levels of internal motivation, expectation and/or internal pressure SLIEs put on themselves to do their jobs well. However, the quantitative data does not reveal where this pressure stems from and reasons for this are explored in Chapter 6.

Although SLIEs generally agree they are effectively managing their workloads, it is evident they perceive themselves working more hours than their peers, and working many uncompensated hours. Additionally, there are inconsistencies in responses regarding statements that generally describe resources as a support to managing job demands. In most of the statements, there is a clear divide with only a few more responses leaning towards agreement than disagreement that they have a sufficient amount of resources to manage their demands (e.g. 25.1, 25.21, and 26.14). But when asked if SLIEs have enough resources to be an effective teacher, again there is a divide, as responses lean towards disagreement (e.g. 25.32). Additionally, other statements indicate a clear lack of/dissatisfaction with specific resources (e.g. 25.7, 25.34, 36.3, and 40.1), which suggests that SLIEs have varying experiences regarding types of resources available to them and how those resources directly assist in managing job demands.

SLIEs believe they have appropriate skill sets to be effective teachers and their job performance is beyond satisfactory. Results show a general consensus among SLIEs that

teaching staff contributes to student readiness; yet there was a lack of confidence amongst SLIEs on whether or not students are safe to practice and ready to work upon graduation.

Considering the relationship between job demands and job resources it was important to also explore the overall wellbeing of sign language interpreter educators. SLIEs of the JDRS-IE were asked to participate in Phase 3 of the study at a later date. Forty of the 66 SLIEs agreed to participate. However of them, twenty-nine SLIEs completed Phase 3. The results of this are described in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5-Results: UWES, MBI-ES/AWS

Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory suggests job demands and job resource can impact employee wellbeing; those with high job demand can experience feelings of burnout, and those with high job resources can experience feelings of work engagement. Further, the relationship between job demands and job resources suggest that job resources can serve as a buffer to job demands and therefore minimise the negative affects demands may have on wellbeing. Phase 2 addressed general perceptions of sign language interpreter educators (SLIEs) on their job demands and job resources that influence their work environment. By way of convenient sampling methods, SLIEs from the JDRS-IE sample were invited to participate in Phase 3 of this study, which was conducted at a later date. Forty of the 66 SLIEs accepted this invitation to participate in Phase 3 but only 29 SLIEs partook. This chapter provides the statistical analysis for the three psychological tools used to measure wellbeing of the SLIEs in this study.

The analysed survey data (n=29) uses three established instruments: the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-17 (UWES-17), the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES), and the Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS). These instruments were combined into one questionnaire for a total of sixty-seven statements (17 UWES, 22 MBI-ES, and 28 AWS) and twelve domains used to develop subscales (UWES: vigour, dedication, and absorption; MBI-ES: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishments; and AWS: control, reward, community, fairness, and value). More detailed descriptions of each tool are provided in Chapter 3, section 3.7. The following sections summarise the statistical findings for each of the three instruments and respective subscales. Correlation statistics are provided to assess the relationships between the subscales of the three assessments. Finally, summary findings are provided to highlight the major findings of the survey.

5.1 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale -17

A description of the UWES-17 tool is included in Chapter 3, Section 3.8.1 and all UWES statements are provided in Appendix D. The UWES-17 instrument measures *vigour* through statements relating to resilience, level of energy, effort investment, and persistence. High vigour scores are related to high levels of energy, zest, and stamina relating to work (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). *Dedication* is measured using statements that relate to deriving a sense of significance from work and feeling proud, enthusiastic and inspired. High dedication scores are related to dedication to work that is seen as meaningful, challenging,

and inspiring (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). *Absorption* is measured statements relating to being happily immersed in one's work. High absorption scores are related to being happily engrossed in work and having difficulty detaching from it (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). An overall high score on the UWES-17 instrument is indicative of an engaged employee who uses his/her energy to achieve positive job-related outcomes. They have a strong inner-drive, enjoy their work, and prevent burnout by focusing on resilience (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003).

5.1.1 Summary of UWES-17 Findings

A total of 29 SLIEs completed Phase 3, which included the UWES-17 survey. The mean and standard deviation for each of the survey vigour, dedication, and absorption statements are provided in Table 5.2, Table 5.3, and Table 5.4, respectively. The following scale can be used to interpret the means for the provided statements (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003):

- 0 to .99 means once a year or less
- 1 to 1.99 means at least once year
- 2 to 2.99 means at least once a month
- 3 to 3.99 means at least a couple times a month
- 4 to 4.99 means at least once a week
- 5 to 6 means a couple of times per week or daily

Statements have been classified as very low, low, average, high, and very high based on to Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) normative scores of the UWES-17 described in Table 5.1.

Description	Vigour	Dedication	Absorption	Total Score
Very low	≤2.17	≤1.60	≤1.60	≤1.93
Low	2.18-3.20	1.61-3.00	1.61-2.75	1.94-3.06
Average	3.21-4.80	3.01-4.90	2.76-4.40	3.07-4.66
High	4.81-5.60	4.91-5.79	4.41-5.35	4.67-5.53
Very high	≥5.61	≥5.80	≥5.36	≥5.54

Table 5.1: Norm Scores for UWES-17 (Reproduced from Schaufeli and Bakker 2003)

Vigour is described as one's level of zest or energy. This is an area that examines the opposite end of the of work engagement-burnout continuum, exhaustion. The data presented in Table 5.2 shows that SLIEs are experiencing an average amount of vigour. One statement was identified as "High", which demonstrates SLIEs' high levels of perseverance.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	3.93	1.10	Average
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	4.14	1.19	Average
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	4.10	1.26	Average
I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	4.76	1.35	Average
At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.	4.59	1.05	Average
At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.	5.10	0.72	High

Table 5.2: Vigour

Table 5.3 provides the results of SLIEs regarding their levels of dedication. Dedication relates to how one identifies with their work. Together, demonstrating high levels of vigour and dedication characterise one's work engagement is considered high as employees demonstrate a high level of energy and a strong identification with one's work (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). Similar to vigour, SLIEs have an average level of dedication. However, they are generally proud of the work they do. This finding is similar to the findings in the JDRS-IE under Category 5: Personal/Performance, where the majority of SLIEs view their job performance positively.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	4.79	1.08	Average
I am enthusiastic about my job.	4.86	1.03	Average
My job inspires me.	4.66	0.97	Average
I am proud of the work that I do.	5.31	0.89	High
To me, my job is challenging.	4.82	1.07	Average

Table 5.3: Dedication

Table 5.4 examines absorption, the third subscale of the UWES-17. Schaufeli and Bakker (2001) describe two continuums of work engagement 1) energy, or activation, made up of vigour and exhaustion and 2) identification comprising dedication and cynicism. These continuums of work engagement conceptualise work engagement as employees' high energy levels and strong feelings of identification with work (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). Burnout has been described as the opposite low levels of energy, which are combined with weak identification. Absorption however is a distinct aspect of work engagement not connected to the third aspect of burnout, professional inefficacy. One may assume that like the two

continuums above, absorption is the opposite of professional inefficacy. However, this is not the case, as engagement relates to feelings of happiness while being engrossed into ones work, which is not the same as one's views on their professional ability or inability. While some scholars (Maslach et al. 2001 and Shirom 2003) believe a lack of professional efficacy contributes to engagement levels, studies indicate it to be less prominent. Therefore, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), do not consider absorption the opposite of professional inefficacy, rather they view it to be a unique aspect of engagement. Table 5.4 illustrates that the SLIEs in this study are experiencing high levels of absorption. Thus, they are immersed in their work, time passes quickly while they are working and they find it difficult to detach from their work.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Time flies when I'm working.	4.79	0.82	High
When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	4.21	1.32	Average
I feel happy when I am working intensely	4.76	0.87	High
I am immersed in my work.	4.86	1.25	High
I get carried away when I'm working.	4.62	1.24	High
It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	4.10	1.45	High

Table 5.4: Absorption

When examining the three domains of the UWES-17, as well as the overall UWES-17 mean, there is not a large difference between the three measures. As seen in Table 5.5 the means of the measures for vigour, dedication, and absorption were between 4.43 and 4.89 and the total mean for all three measures is 4.61. Furthermore, the standard deviation of these measures indicates that the sample do not greatly differ in their levels of vigour, dedication, and absorption.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
UWES Vigour	4.43	0.68
UWES Dedication	4.89	0.74
UWES Absorption	4.56	0.70
UWES Total	4.61	0.62

Table 5.5: Means of all three subscales

Differences in the mean levels of vigour, dedication, and absorption resulted in an average standard deviation of 0.62. The SLIEs exhibit the measures of work engagement at least once a week or more. According to Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) normative scores of the UWES-17 instrument, a mean vigour score of 4.43 is average, a mean dedication score of 4.89 average, and an absorption score of 4.56 is high (Tables 5.5 and 5.6). SLIEs exhibited more frequent absorption than vigour or dedication. Furthermore, the overall UWES-17 score is rated as average. Table 5.6, includes the information from Table 5.1, but incorporates the averages from this data.

Description	Vigour	Dedication	Absorption	Total Score
Very low	≤2.17	≤1.60	≤1.60	≤1.93
Low	2.18-3.20	1.61-3.00	1.61-2.75	1.94-3.06
Average	3.21-4.80	3.01-4.90	2.76-4.40	3.07-4.66
High	4.81-5.60	4.91-5.79	4.41-5.35	4.67-5.53
Very high	≥5.61	≥5.80	≥5.36	≥5.54

Table 5.6: Norm Scores for UWES-17 (Reproduced from Schaufeli and Bakker 2003)

5.2 Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey

The MBI-ES uses the same three burnout subscales including: 1) Emotional Exhaustion, 2) Depersonalisation, and 3) Personal Accomplishments. Unlike the UWES-17, scores for the three subscales are not combined into a total score. Response options are provided in a 6-point format. Burnout is then conceptualised as a continuous variable (as opposed to present or absent). SLIEs with high scores of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation and with low scores of personal accomplishment have a high degree of burnout. SLIEs with average scores in all three subscales have an average degree of burnout. Finally, SLIEs with low scores on emotional exhaustion and personalization and high scores of personal accomplishment have a low degree of burnout. A more detailed description of the MBI-ES tool is included in Chapter 3, section 3.8.2 and all of the MBI-ES statements are provided in Appendix D.

5.2.1 Summary of MBI-ES Findings

A total of 29 SLIEs completed the MBI-ES. The mean and standard deviation for each of the subscales including: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment statements is provided in Table 5.7, Table 5.8, and Table 5.9.

SLIEs answered "How often?" for each statement and were provided with the following scale:

- 0= Never
- 1= A few times a year or less
- 2= Once a month or less
- 3= A few times a month
- 4= Once a week
- 5= A few times a week
- 6= Every day

Table 5.7 examines MBI-ES statements related to emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is defined as the "tired and fatigued feeling that develops as emotional energies are drained. When these feelings become chronic, educators find they can no longer give as much of themselves to students as they once could" (Maslach et al. 2004, p. 28).

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	3.28	1.78	A few times a month
I feel used up at the end of the workday.	3.41	2.03	A few times a month
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	3.10	1.88	A few times a month
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	1.59	1.43	A few times a year or less
I feel burned out from my work.	2.86	1.98	Once a month or less
I feel frustrated from my job.	3.52	1.86	A few times a month
I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	3.69	1.87	A few times a month
Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	1.41	1.35	A few times a year or less
I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	1.76	2.01	A few times a year or less

Table 5.7: MBI-ES: Emotional Exhaustion

These numbers describe the emotional exhaustion levels of the SLIEs. As seen by the means attached to each statement, a few times a month SLIEs experience some level of emotional exhaustion. They find themselves feeling drained from work, used up, fatigued and that they

are working too hard. At least once a month they exhibit feelings of burnout related to their working experiences. Over time, their feelings of emotional exhaustion worsen, and at least once a year they experience feelings of despair[44]. Additionally, SLIEs experience frustrations of working with people on an annual basis.

Results to statements related to depersonalisation, the next subscale measured by the MBI-ES, are provided in Table 5.8, Depersonalisation is defined as when educators display indifferent, negative attitudes toward their students, exhibit cold and distant attitudes, and physically distance themselves from students. Based on the JDRS-IE, it would be expected that the depersonalisation of the SLIEs be low, as the results indicated that SLIEs continually perceived students to be their number one priority.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects.	0.66	1.17	Rarely-Never
I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	1.49	1.67	A few times a year or less
I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	1.34	1.74	A few times a year or less
I don't really care what happens to some students.	0.83	1.17	Rarely-Never
I feel students blame me for some of their problems.	2.31	2.01	Once a month or less

Table 5.8: Depersonalisation

The results indicate that the SLIEs have less feelings of depersonalisation than those of emotional exhaustion. SLIEs do not feel as if their students are impersonal objects, and they care about their students' personal or professional outcomes. This result validates the findings from the JDRS-IE described in Chapter 4. SLIEs of the JDRS-IE indicated their students learning to be their primary focus, often prioritising students above all other job demands (see: section 4.37 and 4.3.10). Additionally, the MBI-ES scores show that once a month or less, SLIEs feel that students place blame on them for their own problems. This finding may also relate to the finding from the JDRS-IE, where SLIEs view students expectations are more demanding than the expectations from other stakeholders (See section 4.4.1). Finally, the statements in relation to how the job has personally changed SLIEs, such

[44] Statement: "I feel like I am at the end of my rope"

as becoming more callus towards people and feeling hardened emotionally does occasionally occur, but less so.

Personal accomplishment, the third subscale of the MBI-ES, examines how educators feel about their contributions to student development. If educators feel they are not contributing to students' learning and growth, the MBI-ES suggests they may experience feelings of disappointment.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
I can easily understand how my students feel about things.	4.52	1.24	Once a week
I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.	4.59	1.12	Once a week
I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	4.93	1.07	Once a week
I feel very energetic.	4.07	1.53	Once a week
I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.	5.00	0.92	A few times a week
I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students.	4.72	1.19	Once a week
I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	5.00	1.04	A few times a week
In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	4.38	1.15	Once a week

Table 5.9: Personal Accomplishment

These numbers indicate the high feelings of personal accomplishment SLIEs feel regarding their work. As identified in these means, they are much higher than both emotional exhaustion, and depersonalisation which suggests they have these feelings more frequently. At least once a week they are experiencing each of the eight statements, and two statements, regarding the atmosphere they create for students, and feeling as if they have had many worthwhile accomplishments in their job, are experienced on average a couple times a week. This suggests that overall the SLIEs feel accomplished, and that they are making a difference in people's lives through the work they do. These results also link to the findings from the JDRS-IE, as SLIEs indicated a high sense of personal accomplishment and self-efficacy (see: Chapter 4, section 4.3.5).

5.2.2 Understanding the Three MBI-ES Domain Subscales

Table 5.10 provides the statement mean for each of the three MBI-ES domains. The means of the subscales for emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment were between 1.32 and 4.66. Based on the standard deviations provided in Table 5.10, there was more variation in responses to the emotional exhaustion statements and depersonalisation statements than the personal accomplishment statements. Whereas SLIEs exhibit the personal accomplishment statements (which are positive) at least once a week, they exhibit the emotional exhaustion statements (which are negative) at least once a month and they exhibit the depersonalisation statements (which are negative) less than once a month.

Measure	Statement	Standard Deviation
Emotional Exhaustion	2.74	1.19
Depersonalisation	1.32	1.20
Personal Accomplishment	4.66	0.65

Table 5.10: MBI-ES Domain Means

The above statements were used to calculate an aggregate mean. This is unlike the UWES-17 and AWS. Whereas with the UWES-17 and AWS measure means from a normative scales to provide meaning, the MBI-ES relies on a frequency score calculated by finding the aggregate of the statement means. These scores are provided in Table 5.11 for each of the three domains.

Measure	Aggregate Mean	Standard Deviation
Emotional Exhaustion	24.62	10.77
Depersonalisation	6.62	5.99
Personal Accomplishment	37.21	5.20

Table 5.11: MBI-ES Frequency

Maslach et al. (1996) provide cut-off points for scores based on a normative distribution. These cut-off points have been provided in Table 5.12. Scores produced in the data have been highlighted. Referring back to Maslach et al. (1996):

- Respondents with high scores of emotional exhaustion and personalization and with low scores of personal accomplishment have a high degree of burnout.

- Respondents with average scores in all three subscales have an average degree of burnout.
- Respondents with low scores on emotional exhaustion and personalization and high scores of personal accomplishment have a low degree of burnout.

The SLIEs in this study, however**,** do not fit any of these three patterns. The table indicates that SLIEs have average emotional exhaustion scores, low depersonalisation scores, and high personal accomplishment scores.

Range of Experienced Burnout			
MBI Subscales	**Low (Lower 3rd)**	**Average (Middle 3rd)**	**High (Upper 3rd)**
Overall Sample			
Emotional Exhaustion	≤16	17-26	≥27
Depersonalisation	≤8	9-13	≥14
Personal Accomplishments	≥30	31-36	≤37

Table 5.12: Range of Experienced Burnout (Reproduced from Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter 1996)

To provide a point of comparison, Maslach et al. (1996) provide the means and standard deviations for a sample of 11,067. The results from the sample are provided in Table 5.13.

MBI Subscales			
	Emotional Exhaustion	**Depersonalisation**	**Personal Accomplishments**
Overall Sample			
Mean	20.99	8.73	34.58
Standard Deviation	10.75	5.89	7.11

Table 5.13: Means and Standard Deviations for the MBI Subscales (Reproduced from Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter 1996)

Compared to these respondents, the survey results being analysed within this thesis indicate higher emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment scores, but lower depersonalisation scores.

5.3 Areas of Work-life Survey

The Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS) is a companion piece to the Maslach Burnout Inventory Surveys, including the MBI-ES. The AWS has been created to assess respondent perceptions of work setting qualities that play a role in whether they experience work

engagement or burnout (Leiter and Maslach 2000). The AWS operationalises concepts of workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values to measure worklife balance and burnout. The tool comprises 28 items that produce scores in the six domains. Unlike the UWES-17 scale, a total score is not provided for the AWS because the six areas of work-life represented in the sub-scales are too different to be combined. There are both positively and negatively worded statements. Using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), SLIEs were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statements. Scores higher than three (indicating that SLIEs agree or strongly agree) are considered a high score and indicate a higher congruence between the SLIEs' preferences and their workplace (Leiter and Maslach 2011). Therefore, scores less than three (indicating that SLIEs disagree or strongly disagree) are considered a low score and indicate more incongruence between the respondents' preferences and his/her workplace. The AWS instrument measures workload through five statements relating to the amount of work to be completed and the time one has to complete it. Refer to Chapter 3, section 3.8.3 for a more detailed explanation of the tool and to Appendix D for a list of domains and statements.

5.3.1 Summary of AWS Findings

A total of 29 individuals completed the survey. The mean and standard deviation for each of the statements is provided in the tables below and are categorised by the six AWS domains. Tables 5.14-5.19 present scores for each of the subscales. Each statement and sub-scale has a range of 4 (from 1 to 5), where one represents a strong mismatch between the respondent and her work environment, two represent a moderate mismatch between work and her environment; and three represents a strong match between the respondent and her work environment. The scales for some of the statements[45] were reversed to accurately calculate the sub-scales (e.g., 5=1, 4=2, 3=3, 2=4, 1=5).

The first domain presented of the AWS is workload. The results here indicate that SLIEs perceive they have a heavy workload.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
I do not have time to do the work that must be done.	4.13	0.92

[45] statements: 1, 2, 3, 12, 13, 18, 23, and 24

I work intensely for prolonged periods of time.	4.03	0.91
I have so much to do on the job that it takes me away from my personal interests.	3.69	1.23
I have enough time to do what's important in my job.	2.62	1.24
I leave my work behind when I go home at the end of the workday.	1.86	0.88

Table 5.14: Workload Table

SLIEs feel they do not have time to complete all of the necessary work and they work intensely for long periods of time including taking work home with them. They occasionally feel they do not have enough time to do the important aspects of their job and also at times feel their job is taking them away from their personal interests. These results align with findings from the JDRS-IE described in Chapter 4.

According to Leiter and Maslach's (2011), when individuals have more control over their work, they can experience greater satisfaction with their job and therefore demonstrate more commitment to it. Control is the second domain of the AWS and the results are presented in Table 5.15.

In terms of the control domain of the AWS, SLIEs appear to be at the midpoint leaning towards agreement with the statements. Therefore, they appear to have an average amount of control regarding their work. They often perceive themselves in having professional autonomy and independence within their professional roles, and feel they control how to approach their work. SLIEs sometimes feel they have influence in decision-making around the work they do and sometimes, although less, they perceive they have the ability to influence management for equipment and working spaces.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
I have control over how I do my work.	3.76	0.87
I can influence management to obtain the equipment and space I need for my work.	3.21	1.21
I have professional autonomy/ independence in my work.	4.10	0.81
I have influence in the decisions affecting my work.	3.59	1.18

Table 5.15: Control Table

Table 5.16 shows the reward domain statements, their means, and standard deviations. Reward is described as the financial and social recognition one is provided for one's work.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
I receive recognition from others for my work.	3.52	0.99
My work is appreciated.	3.83	0.85
My efforts usually go unnoticed.	2.83	1.00
I do not get recognised for all the things I contribute.	3.10	1.14

Table 5.16: Reward

These findings demonstrate SLIEs do not indicate any extreme matches for any of the statements within the reward section. All statements, except for one, indicate being at the midpoint, leaning towards a match, while one statement leans towards a mismatch. They can see how their work is appreciated, and although they do not always get recognised for their contributions, their efforts are not necessarily unnoticed.

In this study the "community" has been used to describe deaf and interpreting communities affiliated with interpreter education. However, the term 'community' as a domain of the AWS is used to describe the community within the organisation, and in this case higher education institutions SLIEs work within. Table 5.17 identifies statements relating to community and the means and standard deviation associated with each statement.

Community statements are also scored predominately in the midpoint range leaning towards matching. They sometimes feel they are members of a group who communicate openly, are supportive, and work well with each other. Sometimes they feel colleagues they work with have a sense of trust amongst each other to fulfil their roles. They lean towards incongruence with the final statement indicating positive feelings about their colleagues. This score is interesting to note since results from the JDRS-IE indicate SLIEs were more satisfied with their external colleagues than their internal ones, but both rated as support resources they were moderately satisfied with (see: Chapter 4, section 4.7.2). However, the results from the JDRS-IE indicate that the SLIEs were not as satisfied with their administration, which in this domain would be considered part of the higher education community. However, there are not specific statements related to administrators or management as members of the organisational community.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
People trust one another to fulfil their roles.	3.35	0.90
I am a member of a supportive group.	3.37	1.12
Members of my work group cooperate with one another.	3.59	0.90
Members of my work group communicate openly.	3.31	0.89
I don't feel close to my colleagues.	2.66	1.11

Table 5.17: Community Statements

Fairness is the next area included in the AWS. Fairness is described as the "extent to which decisions at work are perceived as being fair and people are treated with respect" (Leiter and Maslach 2011, p. 6). Additionally, Leiter and Harvie (1997, 1998) suggest that those who perceive their supervisors as fair and supportive are less vulnerable to burnout and are more accepting of organisational changes. Table 5.18 provides the results for the fairness domain.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
Resources are allocated fairly here.	2.66	1.04
Opportunities are decided solely on merit.	2.52	0.95
There are effective appeal procedures available when I question the fairness of a decision.	2.76	0.95
Management treats all employees fairly.	2.83	1.17
Favouritism determines how decisions are made at work.	3.28	1.03
It's not what you know, but who you know that determines a career here.	3.41	1.02

Table 5.18: Fairness

More statements lean towards incongruence or mismatch in the fairness domain. Although statements do not receive an extreme match/mismatch, there do seem to be less positive feelings about this domain. SLIEs identified that resources are not always allocated fairly, opportunities are not always based on merit, appeal procedures regarding decisions are not always effective, and management does not always treat people fairly. Two statements lean towards a match, although at a midpoint, still indicating less than positive responses. These results suggest SLIEs sometimes see favouritism as influencing how decisions are made, and that who you know will have an impact on career trajectory.

The next domain presented in Table 5.19 is values, which often are what initially attracts an individual to a job. However, when an individual's values conflict with the job,

misalignment of value occurs, which can negatively affect their levels of work engagement (Leiter and Maslach 2000).

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
My values and the organisation's values are alike.	3.48	1.02
The organisation's goals influence my day-to-day work activities.	3.86	0.95
My personal career goals are consistent with the organisation's stated goals.	3.59	0.98
The organisation is committed to quality.	3.14	1.22

Table 5.19: Values

Within this value domain, statements although at midpoint, lean towards congruence. SLIEs appear on average to perceive that the higher educational institutions in which they work are committed to quality. In some instances they see how their values and the organisational values align, and personal career goals, for the most part, are consistent with their work place. Finally, they lean much closer to a match, in that the organisations goals influence their day-to-day work activities. Although SLIEs felt like they were mostly in control, this demonstrates that the organisation does have an influence over how they elect to navigate their roles and responsibilities.

5.3.2 Summary of AWS Findings

Table 5.20 provides the means for each of the AWS domains. The means of measures for workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values were between 2.12 and 3.69. The standard deviations of these measures indicate the sample does not greatly differ in their levels of the six areas.

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
Workload	2.12	0.72
Control	3.69	0.75
Reward	3.37	0.81
Community	3.39	0.78
Fairness	2.69	0.77
Values	3.51	0.80

Table 5.20: Subscales

Based on the means for each of the sub-scales, there is a higher congruence between control, reward, community, and values (scores greater than three in these areas indicate an average

agreement) relating to the SLIEs and their workplace. However, there is a general incongruence in the areas of workload and fairness (scores less than three in these areas indicate an average disagreement). Note that the greater the incongruence, the more likelihood of burnout and the greater the congruence, the more likelihood of engagement.

Leiter and Maslach (2011) provide normative measures of the sub-scale outputs. They identify the cut-off points for low (25th percentile), moderate (50th percentile), and high (75th percentile) scores in the AWS sub-scales. Table 5.21 is adapted from Leiter and Maslach's (2011) Distribution of Cut-Off Points - Quartile Cut-Off Values for the AWS with cells highlighted to demonstrate the data values from this research.

Domain	25th Percentile	50th Percentile	75th Percentile
Workload	2.33	3.00	3.50
Control	2.67	3.33	4.00
Reward	2.75	3.25	3.80
Community	2.80	3.40	4.00
Fairness	2.33	2.83	3.33
Values	2.75	3.25	3.75

Table 5.21: Quartile Cut-Off Values for the AWS

Based on Table 5.21, the SLIEs exhibit 1) low workload congruence, 2) moderate community and fairness congruence, and 3) high control, reward, and values congruence.

5.4 Relationship between the Measures

This section assesses the relationships between the subscales of the instruments, both within and across instruments. Correlations significant at the 0.01 level (based on 2-tailed test) are marked with two asterisks (**) and correlations significant at the 0.05 level (based on 2-tailed test) are marked with a single asterisk (*). Negative relationships are demonstrated by '-' in front of the correlation statistic.

All three UWES-17 subscales have statistically significant relationships (with p-values indicating significance at the 0.01 level, there is less than a one in a hundred chance that these relationships do occur by chance). All relationships are positive. Therefore, the data indicates that these three measures of work engagement are all positively related. The data is illustrated in 5.22

Description	Vigour	Dedication
Dedication	.676**	-
Absorption	.747**	.647**

Table 5.22: Correlations between the UWES

5.4.1 Relationship between MBI-ES Subscales

The correlations between the MBI-ES subscales are depicted in the Table 5.23. None of the three MBI-ES subscales have statistically significant relationships. The relationships between depersonalisation and personal accomplishments, as well as that between personal accomplishments and emotional exhaustion are negative. Despite the relationships not being significant, this negative relationship is to be expected. As a high degree of burnout is measured by high scores of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, and with low scores of personal accomplishment, it would be predicted that only depersonalisation and emotional exhaustion share a positive relationship. Finally, it is not surprising that the subscales of the MBI-ES instrument do not correlate, as the manual explains these subscales measure different items and unlike the UWES-17 subscales (which do correlate), they cannot be compared.

Description	Depersonalisation	Personal Accomplishment
Personal Accomplishments	-.352	-
Emotional Exhaustion	.354	-.029

Table 5.23: Correlations between MBI-ES Subscales

5.4.2 Relationship between the AWS Subscales

The only significant relationships within the AWS subscales are between reward and community and between control and fairness. The significant relationships are illustrated in Table 5.24.

Domain	Control	Reward	Community	Fairness	Value
Reward	.361	-	-	-	-
Community	.171	.538**	-	-	-
Fairness	.528**	.293	.181	-	-
Value	.215	.208	.317	.291	-
Workload	.143	.246	.290	.101	.133

Table 5.24: Correlations between AWS Subscales

5.4.3 Relationship between the UWES and MBI-ES

The relationship between the three MBI-ES subscales and the three UWES-17 subscales is illustrated in Table 5.25. Of the nine relationships produced by the correlation matrix, four are significant at the 0.01 level and one is significant at the 0.05 level. Personal accomplishment is significantly correlated with all three UWES-17 subscales (vigour, dedication, and work engagement). Dedication is significantly correlated with all three MBI-ES subscales (emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment).

Subscale	Vigour	Dedication	Absorption
Emotional Exhaustion	-.358	-.393*	-.048
Depersonalisation	-.305	-.521**	-.289
Personal Accomplishment	.637**	.514**	.599**

Table 5.25: Correlations between UWES and MBI-ES

5.4.4 Relationship between the UWES and AWS

Table 5.26 compares the relationship between the three UWES-17 subscales and the six AWS subscales. Of the eighteen relationships produced by the correlation matrix, only two are significant (at the 0.01 level). Dedication is significantly correlated with fairness and value. This suggests that as SLIEs experience more feelings of dedication to their work; they are also sensing increased levels of fairness and aligned values. Therefore, when SLIEs perceive their working environment to create feelings of equality, not promoting favouritism, and they feel that their values are aligned to those in their department and the higher educational institution at large, they become more dedicated to their work.

	Workload	Control	Reward	Community	Fairness	Value
Vigour	-.038	.261	.287	.188	.267	.306
Dedication	-.073	.202	.343	.342	.504**	.520**
Absorption	-.366	.072	.068	.018	.185	.357

Table 5.26: Correlations between UWES and AWS

5.4.5 Relationship between the MBI-ES and AWS

The relationship between the three MBI-ES subscales and the six AWS subscales is illustrated in Table 5.27. Of the eighteen relationships produced by the correlation matrix, five are significant at the 0.01 level and two are significant at the 0.05 level. Emotional exhaustion shares a statistically significant negative relationship with workload, reward, and community. Depersonalisation shares a statistically significantly negative relationship with community, fairness, and value. This suggests SLIEs become increasingly detached to their work when there are fewer feelings of community, fairness and aligned values.

Personal accomplishment shares a statistically significant positive relationship with value. Therefore, the more SLIEs feel their values align with the department and higher educational institution in which they work; they also experience more feelings of personal accomplishment.

	Workload	Control	Reward	Community	Fairness	Value
Emotional Exhaustion	-.579**	-.268	-.604**	-.503**	-.334	-.167
Depersonalisation	.006	-.234	-.187	-.513**	-.401*	-.479**
Personal Accomplishments	-.172	-.067	-.020	.107	-.112	.392*

Table 5.27: Correlations between MBI-ES and AWS

5.3 Summary of Findings

A summary of findings from each of the wellbeing instruments is provided in sections 5.5.1-5.53. Additionally section 5.54 provides correlations between all three instruments.

5.5.1 UWES-17

The UWES-17 data indicate that SLIEs (n=29) exhibit all three measures of UWES-17 work engagement at least once a week or more. Based on the normative scores, the mean vigour score of 4.43 is average, the mean dedication score of 4.89 is average, and the absorption score of 4.56 is very high. This shows that SLIEs are exhibiting absorption more frequently

than vigour or dedication. Further, according to the overall UWES-17, these SLIEs are averagely engaged with their work

5.5.2 MBI-ES

The MBI-ES includes nine statements to measure emotional exhaustion, five statements to measure depersonalisation and eight statements to measure personal accomplishment. Based on the normative scales, results include high scores in personal accomplishment, an average amount of emotional exhaustion and low depersonalisation scores.

5.5.3 AWS

The AWS explores six domains of work life. Based on the means for each of the sub-scales, there is a higher congruence between the SLIEs and their work environment in the areas of control, reward, community, and values (scores greater than three in these areas indicate an average agreement. When congruence is found, SLIEs are less likely to experience burnout. However, there is a general incongruence between the SLIEs and their work environment in the areas of workload and fairness (scores less than three in these areas indicate an average disagreement). Incongruence between SLIEs and their work environment suggests SLIEs are more likely to experience burnout.

Based on the normative scales, SLIEs exhibit 1) low workload congruence, 2) moderate community and fairness congruence, and 3) high control, reward, and values congruence. This finding explains why SLIEs may be most likely to experience burnout due to workload related aspects of their jobs. Therefore, while workload clearly needs to be attended to, community and fairness are identified as areas of worklife that may need to be addressed to avoid SLIEs being subject to feelings of burnout.

5.5.4 Correlations between instruments

Significant relationships have been identified in all three of the UWES-17 relationships, and between reward and community, and between control and fairness within the AWS subscales. None of the three MBI-ES subscales have statistically significant relationships. The correlation matrix between the scales suggests that of the nine relationships it produced, four are significant at the 0.01 level and one is significant at the 0.05 level. Additionally, personal accomplishment is significantly correlated with all three UWES-17 subscales (vigour, dedication, and work engagement). Dedication is also significantly correlated with

all three MBI-ES subscales (emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment).

The correlation matrix that assessed the 18 relationships identified two relationships as significant at the 0.01 level: Dedication is significantly correlated with fairness and value. At the 0.05 level, 1) Emotional exhaustion shares a statistically significant negative relationship with workload, reward, and community; 2) Depersonalisation shares a statistically significantly negative relationship with community, fairness, and value, and 3) Personal accomplishment shares a statistically significant positive relationship with the value domain.

Statistics continue to be valuable as in this study; they have been used to understand the experiences of SLIEs overall wellbeing in terms of burnout and work engagement, as well as to identify which areas of their work-life may cause them to lean towards feelings of burnout. Statistics were previously used in chapter 4 to explore specific job demands, job resources and perceptions of how such factors impact individual performance and student learning outcomes. However, in order to generate more complex and complete data, a qualitative analysis was also conducted to enhance insights attained from the quantitative data. Therefore, Chapter 6 is the final results chapter for this study and presents the qualitative findings of SLIEs from the JDRS-IE.

Chapter 6-Qualitative Results of the JDRS-IE

Results from the statistical analysis provided insight into the experiences of 66 sign language interpreter educators (SLIEs) who responded to the Job Demand Resource Survey-Interpreter Educators (JDRS-IE). Additionally, by analysing the detailed comments and elaborations provided by SLIEs within the JDRS-IE a more holistic understanding of their perceived work related experiences is gained. Sections 6.1-6.5 show job demand themes aligning with findings from the quantitative sections including 1) Expectations; 2) External; 3) Workload; 4) Higher Education Constraints; and 5) Personal, while also providing a new job demand category referred to as employment status that emerged from this qualitative thematic analysis. Section 6.7 examines SLIEs' experiences with job resources. In order to ensure experiences were anonymous, all qualitative data was extracted from the JDRS-IE and transferred into a single file, removing all identifiable variables. Therefore, when analysing this data, it was unknown which respondent made what comment, yet it is known that the comments come from an array of respondents and not from a single respondent. Additionally, it is also important to reiterate the majority of SLIEs included in this study are from the U.S. However, through the analysis process it was clear that not all comments were from those within the U.S., as other sign languages, countries, and varying terminology were used to describe SLIEs' experiences. However, these were anonymised or changed to follow thesis conventions and to protect respondent anonymity.

6.1 Job Demand Category: Expectations

The qualitative results indicate that many expectations between educators, students, administrators, and external parties are misaligned. Some SLIEs perceive students as less self-directed and are exhibiting feelings of entitlement more than previous generations, and students increasingly expect their education/degrees to be handed to them without applying much effort. For example, one SLIE explained how she has to provide more specific instructions on assignments beyond deadlines and general instructions. SLIEs perceive students to have become accustomed to having everything laid out and handed to them:

- "Students often expect to be taken care of, rather than be independent adults and learners."

- “Students expect me to work miracles within a short class period - it is hard to convince them that the improvement in their skills (particularly their signing) is up to them and much has to happen outside of class time.”
- “Some don't realize how much there is to learn and so I am constantly trying to mediate the amount of content and practice expected against those expectations.”

SLIEs perceive student progression, regardless of satisfying student learning outcomes and work readiness, to be an expectation held by students and administrators. Both groups are viewed to value the financial commitment students invest into their education and thereby expect them to have a return on their investment, potentially without regard to competence:

- “There is a lot of pressure to pass students who are paying for their education. I always struggle with this.”
- “Students expect to pass as [they believe] they have paid for the degree and so should be granted it.”

Comments provided by the SLIEs indicate that they often feel conflicted about such expectations, especially when administrators expect and value student happiness above competence. This expectation is misaligned with the expectations the SLIEs have of themselves and the expectations held by the other stakeholder groups. For example external groups such as the members from deaf and interpreting communities expect sign language interpreter education programmes to foster student learning and professional development specifically for the purposes of work readiness.

- “Student happiness is valued above learning or preparedness.”
- “Administrative priority to make students happy above preparing them to serve the community.”

These types of expectations have an impact on how educators are managing their jobs. For example, one SLIE describes how misaligned expectations affect her:

> What the Institution and students want vastly differ than what I need to teach the students. I have had to pare down my requirements because students have complained there was too much work required. I feel that has hurt their readiness to be prepared to work as interpreters when they finish our programme.

Academics, administrators and students may often feel conflicted about their differing expectations, and some expectations exist due to higher education institutions essentially being organisations which operate under a structured system. While many stakeholders expect graduates to exit higher education with a particular set of knowledge and skills to support their careers, this is not always an expectation SLIEs feel they can meet. One SLIE stated, "Managing expectations of what a student or graduate can do is a big piece of our work vis-a-vis external parties." This statement may represent the quantitative result that 54.6% of SLIEs who expressed expectations of the interpreters external to the programme create additional layers of pressure. Similarly, another SLIE stated, "We have a lot of pressure from the community (both interpreters and deaf) to graduate students who are ready to work." The misalignment of expectations was summarised by one SLIE "as a gap between what is perceived as standard practice and what students are taught", and although the SLIEs seem to be well aware of this gap, they do not appear to be in a position to address it. For example one SLIE expressed "The pressure of building interpreters from raw material in two years is tough, if not almost impossible. It is hard to get this through to my institution". Statements such as those above demonstrate how expectations of related stakeholders often do not align with the expectations of SLIEs.

In addition to SLIEs expressing expectations others have placed on them, they also appear to be managing expectations they have placed on themselves. For example, one SLIE stated,

> The expectations that weigh most are those that I myself put on me because I know how important it is that deaf consumers get excellent interpreters and because I feel responsible for this.

The way in which SLIEs answered the JDRS-IE suggests many manage their workload by prioritising work over their personal lives. They also describe working many hours, which include nights and weekends, and are internally motivated. Some of this motivation is driven by the internal expectation to do well for deaf people, which one SLIE describes as being a part of wider systematic changes:

> This [internal motivation] has been stronger in the past. My internal motivation is lessening with frustration of continuing to work with students who are simply not bilingual. However, I continue to know that in order to change the system, one must be a part of the system.

SLIEs have a desire for their students to become knowledgeable and skilled in order to effectively serve deaf communities as professional interpreters. This desire to work hard in relation to future impacts on communities and professional practice have been thematically identified as personal and professional responsibility (further described in sections 6.7, 7.2.1 and 7.2.8). Although many SLIEs recognise the difficulties in graduates being able to satisfy general expectations of work readiness, due to a variety of reasons, they continue to navigate the systems and structures set in place by their higher education institutions to do the best they can.

In summary, it appears that expectations and related pressures from students, administration, deaf and interpreting communities, and from the educators themselves have an impact on the SLIEs' overall work related experiences. Many of these expectations of what students should be able to do upon graduation are misaligned. Students expect to be accepted to the programme, and to graduate with little commitment, and then be able to enter the workforce. Administrators expect students to progress through their studies through graduation. Deaf and interpreting communities expect students to graduate with a higher levels of competence. Educators also have high expectations of themselves, and are working to satisfy expectations of all stakeholders. However, this juggling act is sometimes superseded by the administration and SLIEs are forced to scale down their expectations of students to satisfy administrative desires. This aligns with the finding from the AWS, where SLIEs showed a moderate to high level of congruence with the statement, "The organisation's goals influence my day-to-day work activities." Managing expectations is certainly a major job demand category. Additionally, there are other external job demands placed on the SLIEs. The qualitative analysis of external demands is described in section 6.2.

6.2 Job Demand Category: External

This external job demand category was predominantly intended to understand the processes put in place by external organisations that may have influence over the curriculum. Statistically, this did not impact over half of the SLIEs, and some of the SLIEs were unsure how the external entities might have an impact (See Chapter 4, section 4.3.3). With that said, one SLIE described how there are many different requirements across the U.S. and Canada, which results in a lack of consistency across programmes. Additionally, another SLIE stated, students in her U.S. based programme are expected to pass the national written examination

with the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf[46] (RID) prior to graduation. However, after the JDRS-IE was launched, a moratorium on the certification processes was set forth by RID (RID, 2016). While this moratorium has been partially lifted, several changes and developments to the interpreter certification are underway (RID 2017). Therefore, programmes within the U.S. requiring students to complete RID tests prior to graduation will need to revisit their requirements; presumably, these changes have and will create unexpected workload tasks for those SLIEs. There were no other comments from SLIEs about these types of external mapping/accreditation issues and the decision to exclude external accreditation as a job demand from this study remains.

6.3 Job Demand Category: Workload

Workload is a major demand category used within the JDRS-IE. Several comments regarding workload demands were provided throughout the entire survey. These comments were also provided in response to questions that did not directly ask about workload. SLIEs describe an increase of administrative responsibilities, such as "insurmountable email", as and also expressed feeling like "inexpensive secretaries". These experiences appear to have an impact on teaching which potentially impact student learning outcomes and student readiness. To illustrate this point, one SLIE stated,

> Administrative burdens have increased year after year, leaving ever decreasing amounts of time for teaching and learning and research. This impacts significantly on available time for key activities. Our teaching load is heavier than those in other parts of our School. The only way to "manage" this is to reduce student contact hours, as there is no funding for additional staff.

In this particular case, time to prepare for teaching and interact directly with students has decreased, making one consider the possible impacts this has had on student learning outcomes and overall student readiness.

Outside major teaching responsibilities, other workload tasks identified by interpreter educators were the managing of staff, student recruitment, training evaluators, attending staff meetings, writing reports, and performing admission screening. One SLIE reported there was a staff member appointed "to do all the administrative work, leaving us the trainers to

[46] RID is the professional organisation currently certifying sign language interpreters in the U.S.

focus on course planning and delivery." This would be an ideal situation; however, with limited financial resources described by many SLIEs, it is not likely to be a commonly provided human resource.

Some SLIEs identified responsibilities within the higher education institution that they are also accountable for, such as positions of leadership, committee involvement, and even teaching in other departments. Consider, for example, the following statements:

- "[I have] additional roles and responsibilities to the wider school/college."
- "I also teach on other non-interpreting related programmes."

This is similar to those individuals who do not hold a permanent contract within the higher education institution and are juggling other responsibilities, as many of them have full-time employment or make up hours elsewhere. One SLIE described this experience as follows: "Because the teaching pay is low, I need to work additional hours at my other jobs to make ends meet - this puts stress on my teaching and time." Thus, although contracts are different, the SLIEs seem to balance multiple roles (e.g. educators, interpreters, committee members, professional association members etc.).

Professional development is another area mentioned with a nexus to workload. Although professional development is considered a type of job resource, as it enhances skills and abilities to grow expertise and support one's work, one SLIE referred to professional development as a workload demand; "I think Professional Development is critical, but it does not help me manage my workload, it adds to it." If other workload related responsibilities were better managed, SLIEs may perceive professional development as a resource and not a demand.

Within this study, the majority of research-related comments suggested research activity is not required of them:

- "I am an instructor (no research service required)."
- "Unfortunately, we are not involved in research. We are employed as teachers and we tend to teach many hours per week, but no research is expected or supported."
- "Time for research is not supported at my institution."

This does not mean these SLIEs do not desire to participate in research-related activities, but since it is not a workload specific requirement, other responsibilities take precedent, leaving little time to conduct research. For example, one SLIE states, "Not actively encouraged [to

research] and there's no time." However, for those interested in research, time consuming tasks such as applying for funding and grants and doing the research itself would prove difficult without allocated time to engage in such activities, as research appears to be outside the scope of their general responsibilities. Furthermore, due to the fact that SLIEs who participated in the JDRS-IE are from various types of higher education institutions, it is difficult to say whether those who have research as a requirement are able to manage it effectively within their current workload. However, one SLIE described her workload as preventing her to conduct research, she says: "The workload prevents me from doing research as well, which in the long term will prevent me from moving up the academic ranks."

Some workload tasks seem specific to interpreter educators. For example, some hearing SLIEs are responsible for the provision of sign language interpreting services to deaf staff members, and they provided the following statements:

- "Provision of interpreting services for full time [academics]."
- "Provision of interpreting services for adjunct [academics]."
- "Interpreting for an all-deaf [academics]."

Another workload responsibility that may be unique to interpreter educators, at least across the U.S., is when the higher education institution serves as a testing site for administering the national certification tests. Two SLIEs described this as an 'other workload demand'.

Although lesson planning, teaching and marking is generally required of academics across disciplines, some aspects of these tasks may be unique to sign language interpreter educators or similarly experienced across a few specific disciplines. While many SLIEs consider classroom materials the second most essential job resource, statistically speaking, SLIEs are not satisfied with classroom materials (specifically sign language videos and interpreting related videos) and it became apparent quantitatively and qualitatively that gathering and developing resources is a major workload related job demand. One SLIE used the word 'scrambling' when searching for video materials to support interactive interpreting practice. This illustrates why many educators appear to be put in the position to create materials themselves. For example, "I need more high quality and updated stimulus materials. I have been making them myself" and a similar response; "We produced some videos on our own but especially for examinations you have to produce new material all the time. We neither have the time, nor the money". These types of tasks are time consuming. One SLIE stated,

"It takes a really long time to plan every lesson and create every resource from scratch but it must be done." Additionally, another SLIE stated that the "Review of the plethora of available videos and materials adds to the workload".

Spending time and energy to coordinate the development and filming of sign language interpreting appears to be a common experience for SLIEs. Considering the quantitative data that showed there are differences in the amount of available resources across countries (see: Chapter 4, section 4.7 and Appendix F), the country in which the interpreter educator works will potentially influence how much time one is spending gathering and/or reviewing or creating video materials. If more of these resources were readily available to interpreter educators, they may be able to better manage other aspects of their workload. For example, one SLIE stated, "Appropriate materials and equipment make the job of teaching/training, learning and grading much more effective and streamlined."

Assessment practices also appeared as a workload related job demand. Statistically, assessing student work was identified as the most demanding workload related job demand task. Conversely, there were few comments that further elaborated on such tasks. One SLIE stated, "Due to the majority of the students NOT YET being bilingual - it makes feedback and grading very demanding! It is difficult to balance constructive, authentic feedback about the work when students are often times simply lacking the language skills." Two responses mention marking in relation to questions around financial satisfaction which suggest salary should be increased to compensate for the additional time spent on student assessment:

- "When the numbers in the classroom get larger. I am not compensated for the extra work this will entail."
- "[I] feel it [salary] could compensate more of the time that's devoted to grading."

Having access to resources (e.g. more time, staff, and software) may improve workload related demands and aid educators in managing their workload. Additionally, it may increase satisfaction with additional compensation. One suggestion to improve the grading/marking experiences was the use of "go react", software that has made her grading more efficient.

Workload seems to be compounded by not having enough staff to support all of the workload related tasks. This is further discussed in section 6.7 of this chapter.

6.4 Job Demand Category: Higher Education Constraints

Higher education constraints is a relatively broad category and potentially very specific to each higher education institution. The JDRS-IE specifically sought information regarding student numbers, duration, organisational structure, grading structures, and policy. SLIEs saw links between higher education constraints, student learning outcomes, and work readiness. Statistically, student contact hours and overall duration and student numbers are the top three most demanding higher educational constraints experienced by the SLIEs. Additionally, the qualitative thematic analysis created the opportunity to further explore these higher education constraints as well as explore constraints not included directly in the JDRS-IE, but were provided from the SLIEs directly through their elaborations in the comment boxes. The following examples explore concerns regarding admission, enrolment and retention processes, student numbers, and course structure. Two major concerns amongst these SLIEs are how and which students are accepted and enrolled into programmes; and the manner in which courses are structured and students are taught. For example, apprehensions are expressed that students are accepted to programmes not for their potential or merit, but rather for the higher education institution to ensure profitable enrolment numbers. Consequently many students are accepted, enrolled, retained and graduated. One SLIE claimed,

> General administrative disregard for quality learning is rampant. Programs allow unprepared students to enter programs, and pass them from course to course without adequate prep because it is easier than failing them, and keeps the numbers up. Students are accepted without adequate signing skills.

This demonstrates how students, who are unprepared on entry, can continue through courses even when lacking needed competencies, which results in exiting programmes without mastering learning outcomes. This attitude of ‘disregard’, as the SLIE described, appears to be economic in nature in order to keep student numbers up. This was not the only response that described this experience; for example, another SLIE stated:

> Administration seems to now only be concerned with the almighty dollar and number of students in the class - they do not seem concerned there are TOO MANY students in the classes. Bottom line seems to be getting the largest number of students in the class so the institution gets more MONEY!

Likewise, it was stated by another SLIE:

> There is a tension between maintaining student numbers across the life of programme and ensuring candidates are fit to practice. This has led to several stand offs with school/ [academics]/ university committees. The bottom line is economic costing.

If student numbers drive economics, then a level of expectation for programmes to accept and retain students regardless of their skills and abilities further supports some of the feelings expressed by SLIEs presented in section 6.1. These decisions to matriculate students without mastering needed competencies will presumably have an impact on graduates' work readiness.

In order to achieve the professional goals of students upon graduation, programme leaders will have to carefully consider course structure in relation to the type of students recruited and enrolled. Due to pre-established structures and processes within higher education institutions, students will adhere to numbers of prerequisite courses, number of units/credits for degree completion and any additional established requirements the higher education institution may have in order to successfully complete their studies (e.g. work placement/practicum hours). Yet, the pre-established requirements may not always be the best structure to meet professional goals. As found in the JDRS-IE, the majority of SLIEs perceive their programmes' current structure to be insufficient, needing restructuring in order to improve student learning outcomes. Programme duration emerged as a theme in the data. One SLIE stated, "Programs are too short". If students enter programmes without a foundation in the necessary sign/spoken language, an interpreting programme should provide plenty of language development classes. However, another SLIE explained:

- "Our students learn signing and interpreting at the same time. They need more language development before focusing on interpreting and the programme and institution structure (and pricing) does not foster that"

Another SLIE wrote:

- "Students should enter an interpretation programme already fluent in both their A and B languages, but that is not how our programme is set-up."

With that said, two other responses provided were:

- "Program design means we spend a lot of time 'making up' for things students do not yet have mastery over"; and another SLIE wrote that the current programme and course structure is not adequate in preparing graduates stating:
- "Interpreters need more than 35 units (our programme maximum allowed units) to be ready to work".

If students do not have adequate skill sets upon programme entry, and there are not enough courses or units to appropriately scaffold students to master expected student learning outcomes, it seems that students will be graduating with many gaps in their skill sets. For example:

> At the moment I consider our programme duration as good (3 years Bachelor deaf Studies plus 2 years Master Sign Language Interpreting). As we are the only programme in [anonymised location] that educates interpreters this way, we might be forced in future to change our programme into a 3 or 4-years Bachelor in Interpreting. This would produce great constraints concerning the issue of programme duration.

If students cannot successfully achieve the expected professional goals upon graduation, should higher education institutions either reframe the programme (as not a pathway to become a professional interpreter) or redesign and restructure it to provide desired professional outcomes? Considering there are a variety of higher education institutions included in this study, depending on the length of programme, certainly some students will have more time to hone their skills than others. For example, one SLIE, who works in a programme requiring 5 years of training expressed awareness that if programme duration reduces, which it may, she will have "serious concerns" about student readiness. Thus, how does this match up to interpreting programmes that are only 18 months, 2 years, or even four years, as the SLIEs in this study worked in programmes with varied durations?

6.5 Job Demand Category: Personal Demand

At times there are personal life responsibilities that impact work either positively or negatively. For example, pursuing higher education degrees, family matters or bereavement, or individual health and wellbeing may add or remove stresses from the day-to-day shuffle. However, instead of personal demands impacting the work, the majority of SLIEs' comments refer to how work interferes with their personal lives. For example, one SLIE explained how the post graduate programme is taught on weekends, which then creates conflict with family

events and another individual stated, “It is more often the case that my work life impacts my personal life”. Correspondingly, another SLIE suggested that the question of the JDRS-IE should read the other way around, implying it is in fact the professional life impacting the personal life. However, some comments within this personal job demand category, as well as other areas throughout the JDRS-IE, do identify aspects of the personal areas that have an impact on their working lives.

Participating in local professional organisations for the purpose of building and strengthening networks, as well as participating in a range of self-funded professional development opportunities are common occurring experiences of SLIEs. Although these relationships will also support their work, it does not appear they are necessarily part of the official job description. In fact, many comments in the personal job demand category relate to such efforts. For example, the following responses are examples of what SLIEs defined as ‘other’ personal job demands:

- “My involvement in other community organisations/efforts external to the deaf community”.
- “Playing leadership roles within interpreter professional organisations”.
- “Professional development to keep up with the professions of interpreting and interpreter education”.
- “I attend almost 50 hours a year of workshops that I pay for myself, to keep me abreast of the field”.
- “Attending local and national deaf events and trying to encourage the students to attend”.
- “Presenting and writing to further the field of interpreting and interpreting education”.
- “Another demanding demand is commitment for the sign language interpreter association”.

SLIEs demonstrate their commitments as interpreter practitioners and educators through engaging with professional affiliations in addition to managing their specific workload demands.

In order to stay current within the interpreting field, multi-tasking and coordinating demands are a common routine among SLIEs. Additionally, considering the higher education institutions have often not funded professional development, further described in section 6.7;

SLIEs make personal choices on whether or not to pursue professional development opportunities. One SLIE described this personal job demand as a "strong commitment outside of work" which allowed her to share what she learned with students. Another SLIE suggested professional development to be an 'other personal job demand' and stated, "Professional Development in keeping current in my own interpreting skills and related skills. These do take time but also enhance my teaching, mentoring and advising of students." SLIEs are attempting to balance their work as educators by also remaining connected to a professional interpreting practice. This allows them to maintain a professional career while remaining current within the wider interpreting profession, sharing what they learn directly with their students.

Pursing higher education degrees is another demand some interpreter educators may face in addition to their specific work related job demands. This may be to enhance their career standing or for personal growth. However, the amount of work and attention required of a student advancing their education, while still working full time, may be difficult to manage for some. One SLIE wrote about making the decision to give up this aspect of her life because it became too much:

> I was working on a Doctorate but just did NOT have the time to continue my studies. Education at this point does not seem to be rewarded by the institute. I have attended an average of 50 hours a year going to workshops each of the past 5 years but my evaluation only showed an adequate and not an excellent rating for keeping up with current knowledge of the field.

Not only does this individual express the amount of time required, she expressed the inability to continue with her studies. This demonstrates how not enough time to manage workload demands impacted her personal educational pursuits, which would have also served as an added resource to support her in her work.

Other comments were noted about how personal demands, due to their own circumstances or the circumstances of their colleagues, can impact the overall working environment. For example, in many cases, there does not appear to be clear structure in place to effectively cover classes when someone is absent. The following statements were made regarding this challenge:

- "Staff absences can impact on personal workload".
- "Staff absence and lack of available stand in staff".

- "Lack of temporary staff to cover absence adds to stress and workload".
- "Family bereavement and impact; difficult to manage at times".

Depending upon the structures in place to deal with staff absences, there may end up being a direct impact on students and other staff members. For example, if other staff members cover absences, it adds to their workload. If they cannot be covered, this directly impacts students, as instructional time is lost. In both cases, when a colleague is absent, there may be concerns regarding impacts to other staff members and impacts to students, especially considering the high expectations they have of themselves regarding their job performance.

6.6 New Job Demand Category: Employment Status

Employment status was not an area discussed in the scoping study and therefore was not directly investigated in the JDRS-IE. However, through the qualitative analysis, several SLIEs discussed how many of the demands they faced were related to their employment status (e.g. not holding a permanent contract with the higher education institution). SLIEs in this employment category expressed how not holding a contract causes them to go without many needed resources. The four needed resource types included: 1) Financial, 2) Support, 3) Classroom Materials, and 4) Professional Development.

It was reported these individuals have low salary and are not compensated for all of the time they devote to their work. One SLIE stated, "Most institutions pay [non-permanent staff] poorly, with no benefits or other supplements (internet, phone, office)". This comment is supported by another SLIE who stated, "As [a non-permanent staff member] - the pay is low and I (on my own accord) put in lots of extra time with the one class I teach. This is a stress on both my finances and my time." Another SLIE stated, "I take a pay cut to do this work - a fairly severe one. I really can only afford to teach one section of one class each year." This suggests that although the pay is low, SLIEs still appear committed to taking on the work, relating back to the sense of personal and professional responsibility they feel toward deaf communities and the wider interpreting profession. Additionally, this also links to findings revealed within the JDRS-IE where SLIEs perceive student learning as their primary responsibility, as they are committed to teaching even without many personal gains. In order to compensate for low pay, many SLIEs take up additional work, such as interpreting or working in other non-permanent positions as educators at other higher education institution.

In some situations, SLIEs wanted the opportunity to work more paid hours at their institution, while some would not be able to commit to doing more because their other positions took up the majority of their time. For example one SLIE says, "I currently have a full-time job in addition to the courses I teach in this programme." Additionally, another SLIE reported she wants the opportunity for more paid teaching hours, but they currently are unavailable to offer. Furthermore, in many cases SLIEs were only compensated for actual teaching time not including time spent on teaching preparation or assessment processes. In order to learn more about the programme one SLIE was working in, she explained how she attends staff meetings without pay. Another SLIE, who works in a programme offering courses at a distance, expressed concern that when the higher education institution implements and requires the use of new technology there is no compensation to cover the time spent adjusting to the new requirements.

The second area employment status is impacted is related to the level of support received from administration and colleagues. It was reported that communication is difficult with and amongst colleagues due to the lack of physical contact. For example;

> As [a non-permanent staff member], I don't see the department folks much and it's hard to track all the other classes my students take and understand the through-line for the programme.

Similarly, another SLIE stated, "Being employed on a casual basis creates frustration when trying to communicate with the institution." These experiences appear summed up by one SLIE's comment that states, "[non-permanent staff] are provided little to no support in most areas, and make do with left-overs, limited access, and vague support services".

As described in section 6.7, SLIEs lack access to needed classroom materials. Although this is a general concern amongst many SLIEs (even those with full-time positions), it is noteworthy that in addition to needing general classroom materials, those SLIEs who work remotely are required to purchase and use their own hardware, and office supplies to deliver their courses. This may be difficult for some, considering the low pay of the job. Additionally, professional development opportunities are not provided to them, which is a similar experience to most other SLIEs in this study.

6.7 Job Resources

Resources are theoretically used to support and manage job demands. In some instances, a single resource may support multiple job demands. For example, financial resources may help purchase software, which aids with marking; and also may be used for hiring more staff which may assist with workload demands. Therefore, section 6.7 does not present resources individually, but rather synthesises resource related experiences as perceived by SLIEs. The analysis of SLIE comments within the JDRS-IE demonstrate how having access to adequate resources can support SLIEs in managing their demands and overall work related experiences. When SLIEs have access to resources, they use words such as "fortunate" or "luckily" and when they are lacking resources, they use words such as "unfortunately", "overwhelmed" or "frustration". SLIEs explained resources they deemed as essential, positive experiences due to their available resources, and indicated resources they lacked and that could better support them in their roles.

Throughout the JDRS-IE, SLIEs elaborated on the job resource category identified as support. The responses show a range of experiences as some who have support in one area do not have support in another, whereas some do not feel they have any support, while there are others who express being fortunate in all areas. Ultimately, the support is in place will likely influence one's overall work experience.

SLIEs elaborated on administrative support suggesting it to be one of the least satisfactory/available resources. This aligned with administrative support being quantitatively calculated as the second to last least satisfied support related resource. This is interesting to note, seeing that statistically administrative support was considered the least essential, but still heavily elaborated on as a challenge. One SLIE explained the support from administration appeared to be lacking, explaining she has created a degree from scratch and feels overwhelmed with, "little administrative support or understanding". Another SLIE felt the "support from administration is seriously lacking", and yet another SLIE suggested administration and management have not supported them, but had "seemed to hinder" their programme. Likewise, another comment explained the lack of support from the administration is due to overall programme oversight.

This lack of administrative support the SLIEs receive is illustrated by the following statement: "Our university administration denies [the programme] everything and never understands why this or that might be necessary." When an administration takes on the role

of instituting structures and policies, and makes decisions regarding programme growth, while at the same time appears not supportive or understanding to the teaching staff, a difficult work environment is created. If the administration is unable to provide resources for their respective educators, then these educators will struggle to effectively manage their job demands, which may impact their wellbeing, and ultimately their performance.

Not all SLIEs shared negative experiences with their administration and instead highlighted some positive experiences. For example, one SLIE stated, "Our programme has an excellent reputation and the university is supportive." While another SLIE stated, "The [higher education institution] I work for is extremely supportive of our programme. The programme is in the process of being completely revamped, and our HEI has provided us with most of what we need"; and a different SLIE reported thankfulness, "I am grateful for the support from the Administration."

Another area of support investigated by the JDRS-IE is the IT support provided by the institution. This may have been interpreted as the IT interface, platform and overarching structure or the staff providing IT services. The comments indicated SLIEs are relatively dissatisfied with the support they were receiving from IT. One SLIE stated the IT provision and support is 'Dreadful', while another comment was less adverse and implied a level of dissatisfaction stating, "They have their good points and their bad points." In one case, the SLIE suggested that IT providers may be in a similar working situation than the SLIEs themselves. For example, she writes, "IT support staff do their best but are woefully understaffed and overworked and do not have expertise in some of our specialised needs." Finally, in one instance, a SLIE explained there actually is no IT department and their team is managing it themselves, adding to their respective workloads.

Support from colleagues is another important aspect to highlight from the JDRS-IE. Support and collaboration amongst colleagues makes a difference for both the individual educators, as well as their students. To substantiate this, one SLIE stated, "A strong team, who works well together, works to achieve the same goals and complement one another". This demonstrated that teamwork is an essential resource for this interpreter educator. Another colleague also expressed an essential resource as "a good team to work with". Although SLIEs are quantitatively moderately satisfied with the support they receive from their colleagues, there is a quantitative and qualitative distinction between external and internal collegial support. The words some of the SLIEs used to describe their relationship with

internal colleagues are noteworthy. One SLIE demonstrated a level of toxicity in the workplace and wrote, "I have one 'go to' colleague and the rest of them are not safe." Another SLIE stated, "I am new in my job but there is no one around who has the expertise I need. I cannot get good advice from anyone at my university, and have to rely on my personal contacts outside of the university to help me." A different SLIE also relied on external colleagues, and stated, "I completely rely on my colleagues outside the university for help and advice"- this particular SLIE also expressed working in an institution that has 3-6 full-time staff members, so it is noteworthy that she relies solely on external colleagues.

Considering how important it is to work with colleagues within an institution, the comment of one SLIE indicated how not collaborating creates feelings of relational stress and negatively impacts students, she wrote:

> I do not have control over the degree to which all my colleagues collaborate or bring an attitude or collaboration to our work. This is a very large stressor that lots of people face and so, working around it seems necessary, but not always satisfying. It is obvious students suffer if we're not all collaborating and sharing.

This SLIE further explained how one of their 'other' job demands is "working around with others, problematic or difficult colleagues." A different SLIE explained how she works in conjunction with two different programmes, at two different higher education institutions. One is an undergraduate programme and the other postgraduate. She reports there are no colleagues to collaborate with in the undergraduate programme and colleagues in the postgraduate programme are "not interested in cooperation/exchange". Other SLIEs explained how in terms of peer evaluations there are also difficulties, which could lead to feeling unsupported in the work environment. For example, when conducting peer based evaluations, one SLIE stated, colleagues are "constantly critical without any evidence or used of researched based practices- just critical". Another SLIE explained how she felt criticised by a colleague who filled out a peer-evaluation in a biased manner. These examples demonstrate that some interpreter educators are not working in an environment filled with support and collaboration. There are SLIEs who expressed benefits of a good team to work with and clearly have the support of one. One SLIE used the support from the team as a coping strategy. Another explained how the team works together and often shares ideas and personnel issues. Another example is when a SLIE wrote, "My colleagues are phenomenal." And another wrote, "I work with a great team, albeit small." Ultimately, those who have

good team collaboration are having very different work place experiences than those who do not work with a team of likeminded and supportive educators. Not having colleagues willing to collaborate appeared to be a challenge for some, as a network of colleagues can assist in bettering oneself. It also provides opportunities to learn from another and ultimately enhance teaching practices.

Size of the team may be another reason there is a distinction between satisfaction with external colleagues and internal colleagues. Some SLIEs stated they simply do not have a team to work with internally, and one cannot be satisfied with something one does not have access to. For example, one SLIE explained she does not receive support via peer evaluations: "with just one person, no other colleagues in-house are available to offer this". Other SLIEs indicated there is a small team of full-time staff. For example, one SLIE stated there are "not enough employed teachers - only me." While another SLIE explained the team is so small it is "responsible for everything from curriculum development to procurement, to janitorial services." Programme coordinators were asked to indicate how many permanent full-time staff the programme has, and of the thirty-two SLIEs in the demographic section titled 'programme landscape', twenty-one selected '0-3' as the number of employed. Therefore, it is feasible to consider that small teams may require educators to extend their collaborative efforts to networks outside the higher education institution. One SLIE described the current lack of staffing at her institution and stated, "We suffer from MUCH TOO LESS staff (I mean really employed staff, not hired lecturers) and the problem that we cannot organise enough freelance lecturers for practical interpreting classes." This SLIE further explained that local interpreters are not interested in teaching at the higher education institution due to various reasons, such as low compensation or because they want to remain full time interpreters. This comment indicates that this particular higher education institution seeks out interpreter practitioners to do the teaching. This may also indicate they do not have any educational experience. Human resource supports are limited due to the lack of qualified applicants to take on teaching roles. See the following comments:

- "There is a dearth of qualified instructors in our area".
- "Dire lack of Advanced [language country specific] trainers let alone interpreter trainers".
- "Most applicants are unqualified".

External support networks such as deaf and interpreting communities were also investigated as part of the JDRS-IE. These networks are important for student development (e.g. linguistic and interpreting competencies). While spoken language interpreting students have the opportunity to study abroad and immerse themselves in the language of study, students studying sign languages are unable to move to a "deafland" to acquire language fluency, and hence student involvement with such external stakeholders is imperative. Fieldwork experiences, also known as internships or practicums, are critical for students, they include interpreter observation and supervision. These opportunities are often dependent on cooperative interpreters within the local area. SLIEs described the essentiality of these stakeholders:

- Deaf and hearing mentors/field supervisors are essential. These field supervisors would have training in providing feedback and support to guide and instruct students working as they work in various settings in the field. This type of apprenticeship/situated learning is vital, especially since programs are not typically long enough to develop a proficiency in a second (usually signed) language, yet most of their work entails interpreting from spoken to signed languages.
- With appropriate support, I believe everything falls more easily into place. Internal and external support from both the interpreting and deaf communities is essential to a successful programme. Support amongst the staff and instructional team is crucial.

Although these SLIEs are satisfied with support from deaf networks, there is substantial statistical difference between this level of satisfaction and the level of satisfaction given to the interpreting community. This suggests that when SLIEs refer to collaborating outside their institution, they may actually be collaborating with interpreters and interpreter educators who are outside of their local community, tapping networks beyond state, region, and even country. The local interpreting experience is sometimes described in a toxic sense. The following statements help define this environment:

- "We are in a political hotbed, and unhealthy dynamics that permeate our communities (i.e. professional bullying, gossiping etc.)."
- "I think that many of the working interpreters have forgotten how long it takes to get good at this."

- "It seems that although most of the interpreting community is seriously narcissistic and think more highly of themselves rather than the deaf consumers, there are a few of the interpreters who readily help our students."
- "Most of them are not interested in what happens at the university and do not act supportively."
- "A lot of negative politics among a lot of interpreters in this area - luckily I am going to work with a team of great interpreters from outside this area! Hopefully the new interpreters from this course come out and give positive influence to others and the new ones in the future."

Two responses did indicate a positive relationship with their local interpreting community. One described it as "fortunate" and the other elaborated saying the local network was "strong" and "good" and was grateful to local interpreters providing sessions on what it is like to be an interpreter, all of which were also appreciated by her students.

As previously mentioned, deaf communities were viewed as supportive stakeholders to interpreter educators and their programmes. Deaf people desire higher education institutions to graduate work ready interpreters, yet they also want to be involved on some level with the students and programme: For example:

- "While there is some tension here with the need to graduate interpreters who are more ready -- overall we have a good relationship".
- "They [their local deaf community] have been supportive to our programme and often give us feedback about our students' performance in the community".
- "Deaf Community members are very interested in the programme and students' abilities. They approach myself and deaf [academics] with concerns".

Another SLIE described the community as 'vibrant' and another stated their deaf community is 'amazingly supportive, while another used the word "fortunate" to describe theirs. There was only one comment suggesting the deaf community was not supportive and her reason for this opinion was that she perceived her local deaf community to be small and lacked training and awareness, which caused deaf people to be negative toward the institution and graduates.

Not only are the human supports essential and experienced differently—the physical supports, such as financials, facilities, materials, and curriculum, are also important. Limited financial resources may relate to many of the challenges with the supports available. In fact,

of all of the categories (job demands and job resources) financial resources were coded more times than any other. One of the major challenges SLIEs are faced with is not having the means to pay for human resources to assist students, specifically those volunteers from the deaf and interpreting communities. Considering how important these external communities are, bringing them into the classroom was deemed essential. One SLIE described an 'other' essential resource in the following statement: "Bring in a wide range of deaf guests from different backgrounds and covering their topics of interest e.g. GSV or Black/ethnics or deaf CPN, Well-known deaf people, etc." It is not only bringing them in that is important, but also having the means to compensate guests has been emphasised. SLIEs know they needed external support, but do not want to take advantage of their involvement. For example, one SLIE stated:

> The deaf community here is amazingly supportive. But I wish we could find more money to pay deaf visitors; it is not fair to ask them to volunteer their time year after year.

Similarly, another SLIE stated, she needs the "ability to invite guest presenters to assist in instruction and pay for them." In addition to paying those who come in, it also seems to be a desire to compensate those who mentor and supervise interpreting students while they are on their internships and placements. For example, regarding internship/placements one SLIE provided, "We have very little in terms of compensation so I have to spread out the requests for guests so I don't overly burden anyone by having them volunteer too much." Likewise another SLIE stated; "We use lots of outside visitors and I don't have a lot of financing to offer them or to hire more regular consultants." The attempt to connect students with external communities is prevalent, but it is clear that SLIEs are not always comfortable doing so, knowing they are unable to provide some level of fair compensation.

In addition to not being able to pay those who are asked to contribute to interpreter education in various ways (e.g. role-plays and mentoring), SLIEs report how higher education institutions often do not fund their professional development opportunities. This causes educators to pay for them out of pocket. Conferences, workshops, and trainings appeared to be available to the SLIEs of the JDRS-IE. At times these were provided internally by the higher education institution; however, the SLIEs were mixed in whether or not they find the internal trainings beneficial. For example, some suggested they are not designed specifically for interpreter educators:

- “Most are not about sign language or interpreting and are a waste of time”.
- “Workshops are basically worthless and irrelevant”.

Similarly, one SLIE did not provide an opinion on trainings received, but indicated they are related to general teaching practices and not specifically interpreter education. Whereas, others suggested it would be nice to attend the trainings provided to them, yet have no time to do so. For example:

- “Actually there are plenty, but I have no time to go to them”.
- “They are available. I don't have time”.

SLIEs on non-permanent contracts described how when they are offered, while they can take them, they attend them on personal time and are not compensated in any form.

Many of the SLIEs elected to participate in conferences and workshops using their personal time but noted they were attending without remuneration.

- “I have to pay for them!”
- “Nothing provided for us. I seek out my own.”
- “Although I often have to pay for it myself.”
- “[Educators] are not provided with funding for professional development.”

Salary is another area of financial resources investigated by the JDRS-IE, which SLIEs opted to expand upon. The majority of SLIEs who commented described that compensation was not well aligned with the amount of work they do. SLIEs also indicated as class sizes increase, they are not compensated for the extra work, as the amount of additional time grading is not accounted for in the salary.

- “When the numbers in the classroom get larger. I am not compensated for the extra work this will entail.”
- “Inappropriate pay levels for the amount of work required. Teaching is still not valued enough generally within society.”
- “I take a pay cut to do this work - a fairly severe one. I really can only afford to teach one section of one class each year.”
- “[I] feel it could compensate more of the time that's devoted to grading.”
- “If I'd known how bad a shape the programme was really in before I agreed to take the job, I'd have never agreed to the relatively low salary I am on.”

In addition to the above, one SLIE stated she ended up taking legal action to obtain the compensation for her efforts that she felt she deserved. On the contrary, two SLIEs did indicate they were satisfied with the pay by stating

- "Salary is generally ok."
- "[I] always could use more, but I am paid fairly."

The lack of financial resources available has impacted SLIEs in various ways. First, educators are unable to remunerate external stakeholders who are enhancing the student learning experience (e.g. deaf people and interpreters); second it prevents them from engaging in institutionally funded professional development; and third, lack of financial resources limits their wage, which is perceived by some as not reflective of the work they actually do. In addition to financial resources being a concern, the environments they are working with was also addressed.

SLIEs expressed a range of experiences in terms of the facilities and built environments they are working in. While some SLIEs have offices, labs, etc., others express not having access to certain facilities at all. Written responses regarding facilities centred about experiences and perspectives of labs. For example:

- "Lab staff are great but the area is too small."
- "The lab usually isn't working for one reason or another."
- "[There is] no lab".
- "Lab is within the classroom at the moment".
- "We need a more updated lab."
- "We work with rather out-dated equipment in the only lab space we have. At the same time the department is trying to have updated equipment (iPads, etc.) that are not easy to access."
- "We don't have one [a lab] - a pretty big issue for my class"

In one example, although the SLIE had access to a lab and stated it is "pretty good", she added that she and her colleagues have to "fight constantly" to keep it because they are currently using macs while other programmes use PCs. This need to constantly justify lab resources may influence relationships between the SLIE and her administration, and also demonstrates essential IT resources are under threat. Another SLIE suggested the idea of having a lab is old fashioned and stated, "Labs are obsolete-students need to have their own

laptops, and the institution needs to provide effective Internet connections and storage space." However, to assume students should provide their own technological resources such as laptops and ways to record may be the result of Western societal expectations of technology ownership and access. Furthermore, it may be passing the resource burden on to the student.

A few SLIEs elaborated about their classrooms and workrooms. One SLIE expressed satisfaction by stating, "We have a good classroom that is the 'home' for signed language classes which means we can rearrange chairs as we please! It makes every teaching life easier". This is an opposite experience of another SLIE who explained the room is functional but has to be "reconfigured at the beginning and end of every class period".

Certainly it cannot be expected all programmes have access to a "home" classroom, but it does seems essential to have a space to teach in, which one SLIE describes that in addition to not having a lab, she finds there generally are not enough teaching spaces available. In another example, the SLIE explained classrooms are "old classrooms are dingy and not aesthetically pleasing". In addition to language/interpreting labs and classrooms, educators have varied experiences with workrooms that are used to help educators prepare for teaching.

SLIEs shared their positive and negative experiences with their workrooms; from one SLIE stating she has "everything at our disposal" to another SLIE on the other side of the spectrum stating, "They have NOT provided ink for our copier in the workroom for the past semester and I have to purchase my own ink for my printer." Additionally, another comment described the "Copier breaks down frequently. Other equipment requires a walk over to another building." The facilities are the environments supporting teaching and learning and therefore depending upon the experiences educators have with labs, workrooms, offices, and classrooms will either enhance teaching and learning or make it more challenging for educators and students.

Having access to classroom materials seems to be a needed resource by most SLIEs. This resource was briefly described in section 6.3, as not having access to classroom resources results in workload demands. These materials are not necessarily pens and paper, but also video based texts needed to teach sign language and sign language interpreting. SLIEs are spending time searching, developing, and inventorying materials, which is expected of educators. However, it appears to be a major challenge for the SLIEs; and the lack of materials or the time and money to produce quality products may be impacting students'

educational experiences. Several SLIEs shared their experiences in terms of "creating visual materials/films" and "gathering learning resources" as job demands. For example, one SLIE stated there is, "Not enough quality [sign language] materials to support learning so I have created [them]." Another response accounted for the need of materials that depict the linguistics of native sign language users, particularly needing quality materials from "native signers as well as a range of styles, e.g. using more English influence, regional signs, gender, age, etc." Another SLIE commented, "I need more high quality and updated stimulus materials. I have been making them myself." Educators need these resources to teach and therefore creating and gathering materials have become part of their day-to-day teaching activities. Yet in order to do so, the common denominator for all SLIEs was the lack of time. There is not enough time or funding readily available to help manage the amount of work needed with resource development; "We produced some videos on our own but especially for examinations you have to produce new material all the time. We neither have the time, nor the money." Further, another SLIE stated,

> There is very little and I can only rely on YouTube to a certain extent. Building a bank of interpreting specific videos for our students to work with is one of my top priorities (<u>now to find the time and the funding</u>!)

The "lack of professional resources and [the] institute's lack of willingness to fund their development" is a clear hinder for some of the SLIEs who participated in this JDRS-IE. In one example, referring to financials at large, a SLIE wrote that the higher education institution she works for, presumably the administration, "wants to be supportive, but has such limited funding that it is ineffective and becoming worse". This emphasises how funding for human resources and classroom materials, is critical in operating and maintaining a successful teaching programme.

To compensate for the lack of classroom resources, educators seek out free video based resources available on the Internet. This has become an excellent resource, as video technology has allowed more people to share their opinions, thoughts and experiences in the public sphere. One SLIE wrote,

> We have very little (only very old things copied from VHS; bad quality). However, there is a lot on YouTube and the deaf community is so amazingly supportive that I should be able to build up a bank of sign language resources through time."

Two SLIEs suggested similar approaches: “I am shifting to finding and using videos available online” and “Our resource library is rather limited; however, we utilise the internet and other resources for the time being until we are able to expand our library.”

Other educators are donating and purchasing materials, as they are not always readily funded/provided by the higher education institution. For example, “Those that we have, are mostly purchased by me or I have had people donate them”. And another SLIE explained that although her department recently did get some books and DVDS, generally she has “had to purchase most of my own books for teaching as well as the videos and DVDs that I use.” Some SLIEs mention they do have access to materials and or funds but are either spending time organising them (e.g. “We have several and working to categorise what we have into skill level and topic areas”) or do not have the time to gather them in the first place (e.g. We have very little here; however I've been told I can order whatever I want so it's only a matter of finding time then I will do it).

In addition to the classroom materials needed to support teaching and learning, foundational components for course delivery also need to be directly relevant to the curriculum itself. Based on this thought, one SLIE described some needs within her programme stating, “We seriously need more resources on curriculum. What we have is what I have developed.” And while there was only one mention of having strong or well developed curriculum, more responses suggested their curricula are simply “okay” or need “rebuilding”, one SLIE again noting that to enhance the curriculum, additional time is needed. She stated, “It's [the curriculum is] ‘okay’, but needs some overall updating. Not much time to actually tackle that project.” Examples of other curricula related experiences are presented below:

- “There is nothing. Certainly nothing based on recent research. I need to create everything from scratch. This is a challenge I feel ready for, and I know I can do a good job of it; but it always comes down to time”.
- “Curricula are often not well-planned; if they are, they are often not effectively implemented.”

Additionally, as previously mentioned, one SLIE is satisfied with the curriculum but she also suggested it does not serve as a resource. She stated, “I am very satisfied with our curriculum as I developed it myself and according to my expectations/ideas. But I do not think this is a resource helping me to do my job.” This perspective was certainly the

minority, but demonstrates that not all interpreter educators have the same experiences in regards to the resources they both have and need to manage their job demands.

Finally, a major resource discussed by SLIEs was the importance of time, their most essential resource. SLIEs lacked time to conduct research, gather resource materials, strengthen and develop curricula, prepare new lesson plans, and interact with their students. Time was mentioned in 74 different comments. Although SLIEs may need more time for various different activities, eight specific areas mentioned that they time for including to: 1) Develop and strengthen partnerships with professional associations and organisations; 2) Improve teaching practices; 3) Conduct research; 4) Attend more professional development; 5) Stay current with the profession by reading new publications; 6) Curriculum development; 7) Review, Develop, Organise and Order classroom materials; 8) Pursue higher education opportunities.

Resources can assist in creating a buffer to the impacts that job demands have on wellbeing. However, considering many SLIEs describe they do not have adequate resources, it is not surprising that their overall wellbeing is affected. Section 6.8 describes SLIEs' insight into their overall wellbeing.

6.8 Theme: Wellbeing

When job demands are high and job resources are low, it is anticipated that employees' wellbeing may be affected. The qualitative analysis provided some insight into SLIEs' perceived wellbeing. Words such as "stressful," "exhausted," and "pressure" were used by SLIEs to describe their job demands and job resource-related experiences. Although there were some responses indicating a positive work environment, none of the SLIEs' comments indicated positive wellbeing to their experiences (e.g. words like energised, stimulated, or even relaxed). Two job demand categories that appear to affect SLIEs wellbeing most are workload and higher education constraints. Personal demands did not impact SLIEs' work as much as their work impacted their personal lives. For example, one respondent wrote, "It is more often the case that my work-life impacts my personal life." And another described how "It's more the other way around; my work impacts on my family when it really should not." These types of statements indicate SLIEs are prioritising work over their personal life, and this lack of work-life balance may contribute to negative impacts regarding health and wellbeing. Others also express a lack of 'work-life balance' due to their working conditions. For example, one SLIE wrote, "work for the time being is the only form of entertainment"

and another SLIE stated, “My workload in general is not manageable and not sustainable long term because I get very little sleep.” Similarly, another SLIE reported a limited amount of sleep, “but it always comes down to time - how much can I do, plus still get more than 5 hours sleep”. Another SLIE describes how working conditions have changed and the changes are impacting her overall health, “I was very satisfied when I started the job 11 years ago, and I feel strongly exhausted nowadays and think that my work has made me ill.”

Additionally, SLIEs comments describe a lack internal support referring to both internal colleagues and administration. As previously mentioned in section 6.7, one SLIE described “one ‘go to’ colleague and the rest of them are not safe”. While another SLIE, who is newer to interpreter education, describes how she wishes she had more support from her administrator, she says, “Especially as an early career academic, I would appreciate a lot more support from management.” These disjointed relationships may have an impact on how SLIEs navigate their workload demands and therefore impacts their overall feelings of wellbeing, as SLIEs do not always appear to feel supported in the workplace. For example, “If there was sufficient time to complete the work, it could be the best programme and it wouldn't matter.” This comment indicates a high and unmanageable workload as well as feelings of being undervalued and not supported. Low morale was also described when one SLIE stated, “The department has very low morale and relationships suffer because of the chair’s lack of management skills.” Another SLIE described how she always felt “pressure rather than support”; while another described how some of her colleagues “seem to be at the point of breaking down”. These descriptions continue to indicate SLIEs may not be in the best state of being:

- “Not having like-minded people around is stressful”.
- “A general lack of knowledge and "divisiveness" is present and stressful!”

Further, as previously mentioned one SLIE described internal supports in a negative manner, explaining how she has “one ‘go to’ colleague and the rest of them are not safe”. The relationships described by SLIEs indicate they may often feel stressed by not being able to trust each other to effectively collaborate. Section 6.9 provides a brief summary on the qualitative results described throughout this Chapter.

6.9 Summary

The comments provided by the SLIEs in the JDRS-IE provided insight into some of the experiences encountered by the SLIEs to this study. SLIEs described various expectations

among stakeholders and how they are often misaligned. They often feel they need to manage those expectations, as while they expect a lot from themselves, they also see how the expectations amongst others (students, external communities, and even administrators), are difficult to satisfy under the current constructs of the higher education institution. While many of these expectations held by stakeholders relate to having qualified work ready graduates, the SLIEs describe how limited programme duration, and that by decreasing student-teacher contact hours makes it difficult for this expectation to become a reality. Further, they are navigating all of this while juggling increasing workloads, with an inadequate amount of resources (e.g. financial and personnel). Moreover, not only does the lack of resources add to their workloads (e.g. developing classroom materials), they often do not always feel supported by their colleagues, which negatively affects their working environment. These experiences appear to have had a toll on their wellbeing, as the discourse used to describe their experiences is predominantly adverse. In summary, it appears SLIEs who opted to elaborate on their experiences are challenged with high job demand and limited resources and can see how such working conditions have impacted them personally as well as played a role in why students graduate without fully mastering student learning outcomes.

Chapters 4-6 provided quantitative results on the JDRS-IE, the UWES-17, MBI-ES and the AWS, as well as the qualitative results from the JDRS-IE. Chapter 7 discusses these results in relation to the literature presented in Chapter 2 to specifically address the four research questions that guided this study. Further, Chapter 8 discusses how this study has been able to contribute to theory, practice and pedagogy.

Chapter 7-Discussion of Findings

This chapter discusses the findings from this study exploring sign language interpreter educators (SLIEs) in relation to the four proposed research questions and current literature. A few key problems guided this research, which were previously described in Chapter 1 and are briefly summarised here. There is a recognised shortage of available qualified sign language interpreters to provide sign language interpreting services between users of sign language and spoken language (see: Jackman 1999, Napier 2002, McLaughlin 2010). This is an issue with a direct impact on deaf people; it hinders their ability to fully integrate and participate in mainstream society. This shortage of sign language interpreters is compounded by the readiness to work gap (RWG) (Anderson and Stauffer, 1990; Patrie, 1994), a phenomenon faced by new interpreters upon graduating from interpreter education programmes who are considered not efficiently skilled for the workforce (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005; Bontempo and Napier 2009). This shortage, combined with the RWG, has been explored in previous research, but research to date does not address how sign language interpreter educators along with sign language interpreter education programmes may contribute to this gap. Therefore, the aim of this study has been to understand SLIEs' experiences working in the current context of higher education, and determine if they perceive such experiences as having a role in the RWG.

Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) theory (Bakker and Demerouti 2014) framed this study. While the theory has been described in Chapter 2, section 2.6, to recap, the theory suggests employees working in all occupations have a particular set of job demands, which are best managed by applying a set of specific job resources. These resources are either inherent to the employee (e.g. motivation, self-efficacy), or are made available by the business, company, or organisation (e.g. funding, support, training etc.). Ultimately job resources are the supports or 'things' needed in order for the employee to do their job effectively (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004, p. 296). Researchers have shown that those who do not have enough job resources to manage their job demands will face challenges that may impact individual job performance, as well as the productivity of the overall organisation (Bakker and Demerouti 2014). Further, job demands without sufficient job resources can also lead to feelings of burnout in employees (Bakker et al. 2003, Schaufeli et al. 2009; Clausen et al. 2012). On the contrary, those who have plenty of resources are able to manage their demands more effectively, are able to mobilise more resources, and are more engaged with

their work (Xanthopoulou et al. 2009; Halbesleben 2010;Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Bakker and Demerouti 2014). Therefore, depending on the working conditions of sign language interpreter educators, student learning may be impacted (positively and negatively); this is contingent upon the balance/imbalance between job demands that educators face and the job resources available to them.

The relationship between teachers and student learning outcomes has also been supported by the literature (see: Chapter 1, Section 1.3, and Chapter 2, Section 2.5.4). Studies have shown how educator performance and programme factors can impact student learning and therefore understanding the working conditions and experiences of the SLIEs in this study can also provide an improved understanding of the RWG. In the following sections (7.1 to 7.4) the research questions framed in this study are connected to the findings presented in Chapters 4-6. Each finding is also related back to the relevant literature, provided in Chapter 2, in order to demonstrate how the findings within the study corroborate with previous discussions in relation to job demands, job resources, pressures in higher education, and pressures in sign language interpreter education.

7.1 Research Question 1: What are the job demands influencing the work environment as perceived by sign language interpreter educators?

As the findings presented in previous chapters have demonstrated, SLIEs in this study perceive their job demands to be higher than the resources available. Relationships between job demands and resources as suggested by JD-R theory were confirmed in several areas of the data. Quantitatively, SLIEs were asked to rank job demand categories from the highest to the lowest, in terms of most demanding to least demanding. Responses were as follows: 1) Expectations; 2) Workload; 3) Personal; 4) External; and 5) Higher Education Institution constraints. Within the qualitative analysis, I examined the data to see how often SLIEs discussed these categories, assuming that the most demanding tasks would be discussed more prevalently. However, SLIEs perceived workload and higher education constraints to be more so than external and personal demands in the ranking. The demands were then re-ranked based on the qualitative data from most demanding to least demanding as 1) Workload; 2) Higher Education Institution Constraints; 3) Expectations; 4) External and; 5) Personal. Although these categories may present different findings, quantitative data provides an overview of trends and patterns amongst the sample, while the qualitative data provides the opportunity to delve deeper and interpret those trends. For example, while

expectations were considered quantitatively the most demanding job demand, particularly student expectations, the qualitative workload tasks that were considered the most demanding were directly connected to teaching and learning. Therefore, it appears these SLIEs may prioritise workload demands that directly impact teaching and learning in order to meet student expectations.

SLIEs perceived to manage their job demands effectively. This finding, in relation to JD-R theory, suggests the SLIEs: a) have enough job resources and personal resources to buffer impacts of job demands; b) perceive their individual job performances as satisfactory; and therefore c) overall programme performance is not affected. Furthermore, considering factors such as how teacher and programme performance have previously been linked to student performance and achievement (see: Hattie, 2003; Rockoff 2003; Wenglinsky 2003; Wang et al. 1997; Ferguson1998; Goldhaber 2002; Sanders 2000; Archibald 2006), the SLIEs' perceptions that they are managing their job demands may mean students are more likely to achieve identified learning outcomes and be work ready upon graduation.

However, inconsistencies amongst the responses in the data initiated questions as to what extent job demands are actually being managed by the SLIEs participating in this study. SLIEs suggested student learning is suffering because of their job demands. Links between educator workload and student learning outcomes were found, and they also expressed how higher education constraints set by the institution, have limited their ability to provide students with an optimal educational experience. The data revealed that SLIEs lack confidence regarding their students being ready to work and/or safe to practice upon graduation, even though they claim to be managing their job demands (See: Chapter 4 Sections: 4.3.1 and 4.3.11). Perhaps, this suggests educators are managing as best as they can within the conditions of their working environment.

7.1.1 Job Demand Category: Workload

This study showed SLIEs perceive rising workloads to affect them personally and professionally. These findings align with educational and psychological literature describing how academic workloads have continually increased over the last 30 years (see: Chapter 2, section 2.5.2). The influences of new managerialism and neoliberalism have resulted in increased roles and responsibilities for academics and they are doing more administrative work, more teaching, more entrepreneur activity, and more community service to satisfy administrators and external stakeholders (Anderson 2008; Reed 2002, Kinman and Ray

2013). Due to such increases, academics struggle to find a healthy balance between their work and home lives (Akerlind and Jenkins 1998).

Depending upon the type of higher education institutions academics work at, the workload allocation models used to distribute work responsibilities may vary (see: Chapter 2, section 2.5.2). Generally educators are frustrated that the work related responsibilities they undertake are not represented fairly in their allocated workload; yet performing such tasks reflect their everyday realities (Houston et al. 2006). With that said, some workload tasks described by SLIEs in this study appear to be unique to their discipline, and presumably are not required of their academics counterparts across other disciplines. For example, organising the provision of sign language interpreting for deaf academics, preparing for and providing interpreting services themselves, and developing and maintaining relationships to deaf and interpreting communities appear to be activities that are domain specific and likely not accounted for within their allocated workloads and may not be expected of academics across other disciplines. These findings relate to research conducted by Woodcock et al. (2007), who describe how deaf academics often carry out unaccounted for workload responsibilities such as planning, preparing and negotiating access when booking and working with sign language interpreters to carry out their day to day responsibilities that non-deaf academics typically do not have to consider. Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume accessibility related workload tasks, such as organising and offering the provision of sign language interpreting services, can be experienced by sign language interpreter educators regardless of their hearing status.

20 specific workload tasks, originally identified in the scoping study, as part of Phase 1 (Webb and Napier 2015), were explored in depth in this study. These activities include everything from teaching responsibilities to office maintenance. In both Phase 1 and Phase 2 of this research SLIEs reported working more hours than they are compensated for, often working nights and weekends. These finding aligns to other literature describing how academics often work outside of traditional office hours to keep up with their job demands (Barnett 2008; Tytherleigh et al. 2005). Considering the average full-time/permanent academic exceeds 50 hours per week (Jacobs and Winslow 2004), it may be worth further investigating workload hours specific to sign language interpreters educators because of the uniqueness of their role sign language interpreter education (e.g. provision and coordination of interpreting services, community partnerships etc.).

Two specific workload tasks appear to be notably demanding for the SLIEs in this study. Student assessment processes and resource gathering and development were highlighted both quantitatively in Chapter 4 and qualitatively in Chapter 6. Resource gathering is further discussed in section 7.2.2, as classroom materials are essential job resources which have been perceived to be lacking and are also indicated as a cause of this workload demand. Student assessment related workload tasks may be perceived as demanding to SLIEs because of the visual nature of sign language, requiring students to submit video based assignments more so than the written assignments, which are traditionally used in other disciplines. As described in Chapter 1 (section 2.5.2), Brown and Hudson (1998) suggest assessment practices in languages may take longer than assessment activities in other disciplines. Forms of assessment using multiple choice or short answer are quicker to grade with the help of an answer key, which is not an option when assessing linguistic and interpreting competencies for sign language interpreting students. Brown and Hudson (1998) argue language related assessments require educators to be more subjective, which can be supported by ample individual feedback. A convention generally accepted among sign language linguistics researchers is that a transcription of sign language data takes approximately 20 hours for every 1 hour of videotape footage. Thus, when sign language interpreter educators are notating feedback on interpreting students' sign language and interpreting proficiency from video footage, a great deal of time is needed to watch the videos. Furthermore, another reason SLIEs may find themselves investing so much time into student assessment processes, relates to SLIEs' feelings of personal and professional responsibility. This finding was first documented in Phase 1, the scoping study (Webb and Napier 2015). As a reminder, the notion of personal and professional responsibility is the committed feelings SLIEs have about their work, in relation to the obligations they have to the interpreting profession and local deaf communities. This finding was also heavily noted in the scoping study and major study and it is believed these feelings are rooted in the notion that sign language interpreter educators are considered the new "gatekeepers" of the profession (Hunt and Nicodemus 2014). As described in Chapter 1, section 1.2, deaf people traditionally vetted interpreters working in their communities. Now that educators have gradually assumed that role, they have acquired a sense of personal professional responsibility to ensure students are properly equipped to serve as sign language interpreters. This factor may be the driving force behind SLIEs spending extra time on student assessment processes. However, regardless of the

reason, SLIEs appear to be spending a great deal of time on assessment processes and it may be more than their workload allocation model accounts for.

The results indicate that the majority of SLIEs reported that doing research is not a required activity. While some SLIEs expressed aspirations to conduct research, they were unable to do so because such time is not allocated in their workload, forcing them to prioritise other workload tasks. Reasons they may not be required to participate in research are presumably due to the type of higher education institution they work in, and whether the institution is teaching or research oriented (see: Chapter 2, section 2.5.3). A consequence of educators not having research included within their workload allocation is a stagnation in the development and advancement of the interpreting profession. Chapter 2, section 2.5.3, describes the importance between teaching and research, including Healey's (2005a and 2005b) suggestion that curricula should be research led, research-based, research oriented, and research informed. His standpoint emphasises the need for educators to incorporate research into the curriculum design as well as the teaching and learning processes. The majority of the SLIEs within this study are not conducting research, and this finding parallels Monikowski's (2013) assertion that generally sign language interpreter educators are 'pseudo scholars'. When research is not an active part of the academic life, it will threaten the quality of teaching and learning (Healey 2005a; Healey 2005b; Brew and Boud 1995). This further reinforces calls made by scholars such as Leeson et al. (2014) and Winston (2013) for interpreter educators to become more involved with research, which can inform programme curricula, teaching activities and improve the student learning experience. Yet, there is evidently a need to promote and foster the development of interpreter educators as researchers. Additionally, it should also be noted that while the majority of SLIEs did not participate in research related workload demands, those who do so are attempting to juggle it along with other workload related tasks, and they feel they are subjected to the traditional 'publish or perish' pressures researchers in academia commonly endure (Smith 1990; Van Dalen and Henkins 2012).

7.1.2 Job Demand Category: Higher Education Institution Constraints

Higher education institutions develop, adjust, and implement structures and policies that frame the context in which academics work. It has been reported that neoliberal philosophies, particularly new managerialism, have been the backbone to many new structures and policies, and have created feelings of distress for many academics (Deem 1998). As academic autonomy continues to be threatened (Deem 1998), these structures and

policies are in many ways constraining to the academic; they have limited control over them, yet they are required to work within them. Examples of constraints explored in this research, in order of most demanding to least demanding, include: 1) Student Contact Hours, 2) Programme Duration, 3) Student Numbers, 4) Organisational Structure, 5) Grading Structure, 6) Policy. At times, educators may experience adhering to higher education constraints as conflicting, as they may be torn between meeting the expectations from those connected to the interpreting profession while they are also confined to the framework of the institution in which they work. These experiences may lead SLIEs to feel conflicted in their roles that connect both to the higher educational institution and the profession (Batey 1969, Williamson 1972).

The SLIEs within this study hold two beliefs that are important to consider when addressing the major constraints they encounter. First, although they believe they can teach the curriculum in the current programme durations, they do not believe they can teach what students need to know in the timeframe[47] available, noting that the programmes they work in need restructuring. This suggests there may be overarching issues with programme curricula and/or there is more to teach than the curriculum and programme duration allows. This is also indicative of larger systematic issues about how higher education institutions structure programmes. The finding that showed how SLIEs perceive programme duration is insufficient for teaching everything that they believe students need to know by the time they graduate is reflective of experiences of sign language interpreter educators internationally (Swabey and Mickelson 2008; Napier 2009). Furthermore, it also echoes Heffernan's (1973) argument against the establishment of the credit hour system in higher education (see: Chapter 2, section 2.4.3.). However, as higher education has shifted toward marketisation, the market will expect graduates to be sufficiently prepared to enter the work environment, further pushing programmes to revaluate what their curricula includes; if it is relevant to workforce needs and whether or not programme duration is adequate to effectively deliver the curriculum.

Educational pathways for individuals to become sign language interpreters vary, therefore duration of interpreter education programmes vary across institutional types (Napier 2009). This variance was also seen in this study as SLIEs work within programmes that range from

[47] Timeframe in duration of overall programme structure and number of contact hours/face to face time spent directly with students.

less than a year to five years in length. Regardless of programme length, the programmes all appear to be attempting to teach essential language and interpreting competencies within the duration of their programme. Additionally, while programme duration was viewed unfavourably by the SLIEs as they felt that it was an insufficient amount of time to prepare students for the workforce, these are in fact structural issues that are rooted in the operations of the higher education institutions and outwith the control of the SLIEs themselves. Other educators who have questioned course and programme duration have been reported to pack the curriculum, cramming as much theory and practice into their curriculum as they can; often this happens without regard to the negative effects on teaching and learning processes (Fisch 1996; Lujan and DiCarlo 2006; Kyndt et al. 2013). Therefore, it seems plausible that they may find themselves packing the curriculum as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2. Thus, when considering sign language interpreter education, a larger transformation in the form of competency-based learning (Voorhees 2001) may be needed. For example, instead of purely asking how many credits one needs to earn a given degree, two additional questions could be asked: 1) What knowledge and skills must one demonstrate to become a sign language interpreter? 2) How long will it take to fully master the competencies needed? As it stands, degrees awarded by higher education institutions, regardless of discipline, are achieved after students successfully complete a specified number of credit hours and it may very well be these one-size fits all degrees limit graduates from successfully integrating into the workforce. Based on the above observations one must also refer back to understanding the purpose of higher education. As higher education institutions have shifted toward marketisation emphasising employability as having a fundamental role in its existence (see: Chapter 2, section 2.3), it seems logical to design programmes in consideration to industry needs. Otherwise, the shift towards marketisation is self-sustaining rather than mutually beneficial.

In this study, SLIEs reported enrolment related requirements create a layer of additional pressure for them. This is not surprising considering enrolment is considered a key performance indicator for many higher education institutions (Cave 1997); consequently the number of students enrolled in a course or programme may result in positive or negative consequences for the programmes sustainability (Dolence and Norris 1994). For example, Alexander (2000, p. 412) describes how increasing class sizes will lead to “less individual attention and faculty/student interaction, and eventually, reduced academic performance”. Quantitative and qualitative results in this study demonstrate how SLIEs perceive their

administrators to be primarily focused on and concerned about student numbers (see: Chapter 4 and Chapter 6). The results also showed how some of the SLIEs feel pressured to pass students in order to meet institution number requirements, an experience faced by other academics described in the literature as well (e.g. Field 2011).

Moreover, as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.3, the recent closing of University of Bristol's Centre for Deaf Studies for economical and structural purposes has presumably hit many U.K. interpreter educators close to home. While income generation can come from a variety of sources, considering the University's shift to support programmes that could accommodate more students in larger classes, the University opted to eliminate the Centre for Deaf Studies as they lacked adequate student enrolment income for the programme to remain viable (Anonymous, Personal Communication, 2014). This decision demonstrates the severity of student enrolment for programme sustainability. Seeing how a world-renowned institution for sign language interpreter education was forced to close its doors due to student enrolment issues, amongst other reasons, may continue to create real concerns for many sign language interpreter educators in similar positions, particularly those who feel pressured by administrators to meet student enrolment targets, an experience described by the SLIEs in this study. Nevertheless, consequences of passing students to ensure student number requirements are met, will make it increasingly difficult for the sign language interpreting as a field to transition from a semi-profession, as described by Bontempo (2013), to a full-fledged profession, particularly if future generations of interpreters remain unqualified. Furthermore, unqualified interpreters will continue to negatively impact deaf people in their efforts to fully participate in mainstream society.

7.1.3 Job Demand Category Expectations

As higher education has evolved under new managerialism (see: Chapter 2, section 2.4.1), the expectations students, staff, and key stakeholders have on the higher education institution has increased. Quantitatively, the SLIEs reported expectations as the most demanding job demand category; within that category they indicate expectations from students to be the most demanding source of those expectations. Additionally, while workload was the most demanding job demand category in the qualitative analysis, expectations from students were also accounted for (see: Chapter 6, section 6.1). Expectations students have of their educators have been described in the literature. Branka et al. (2012) explain how academics spend much of their day being interrupted by student demands. For example, Tennant et al.

(2010), suggest email has made the academic more accessible to students, where they can easily offload their demands directly to their educators, a phenomenon that educators did not face prior to the World Wide Web. Some of these expectations relate to whether or not students are required to pay for their education (see: OECD 2002; Woodall et al. 2014; Tomlinson 2014). Findings presented in Chapter 6, section 6.1, indicate students want more from their educational experiences for less money, with less commitment on their part, and less work. These sentiments parallel Plunkett's (2014, p. 2) remark: "Gone are the days where students come to class to learn and expect to work for and earn the grades they receive." Yet, while student expectations are on the rise, resources needed to meet those expectations are declining. For example Habeshaw et al. (1999) describe how educator/student interactions can be limited when resources are unavailable. However, while SLIEs report not having access to all essential resources (discussed in section 7.2), they continue to prioritise students and teaching related workload tasks above other responsibilities. Upon reading the literature describing the landscape of the higher education institution and detailed analysis of findings, it is believed that these findings are related to the following factors: 1) the landscape of the higher education institution emphasises the student experience as increasingly important and surveys are used to monitor this experience in relation to teaching quality (Clewes 2003); and 2) how SLIEs in this study perceive student learning to be their primary responsibility. At the same time they also perceive students do not value their efforts and do not consider their efforts to ever be not enough for them. Yet, SLIEs continue to work hard to meet student expectations as well as their personal expectations.

Results of this study reveal the second most demanding type of expectation is the expectations they place upon themselves. Austin and Gamson (1983, p. 11) suggest academics belonging both to a profession and an organisation "face role conflicts and ambiguous demands concerning their research and teaching." Therefore, knowing that the majority of SLIEs in this study are also sign language interpreter practitioners it seems feasible to assume they also have multi-faceted identities. These identities include educator, practitioner and friend/family member to those connected to deaf communities. Hence, some of the expectations they have upon themselves may relate to the identities they hold and therefore work hard for reasons beyond their own career trajectory. For example, the theme of personal and professional responsibility originally found in Phase 1, the scoping study (Webb and Napier 2015), and further identified in Phase 2, may be a reason they put pressure

on themselves in the workplace. Additionally, this study showed how graduate skill sets can also have positive and negative impacts to the SLIEs' personal reputations within their local deaf communities. Therefore, it seems reasonable to ascertain that personal and professional connections SLIEs have to the wider interpreting profession, including deaf communities, may serve as a major motivating factor, which also increases the expectations they hold of themselves regarding the work they do.

Within this study, SLIEs were dissatisfied with administrators. They felt meeting administrative expectations to be more demanding than collegial expectations, and those from external entities (e.g. other interpreters outside the higher education institution and consumers of interpreting services). These expectations may be seen and felt more strongly because of the divide generated by new managerialism between academics and administrators (Heyliger 2014). The expectations from administrators are pushing academics towards meeting targets that support the economic bottom line (minimisation of cost and priority of profit) (Albert and Whetten 1985). Therefore, it seems possible that administrator expectations are directly connected to the higher education constraints put in place. For example as presented in Chapter 4, section 4.6.7 and described in section 7.1.2, some SLIEs feel pressured by their administration to pass students to meet student enrolment targets. As described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.5, Field (2011) described an account where administrators falsified attendance records and raised grades when educators did not respond to the pressures the administrators placed upon them about student enrolment numbers. This is not to generalise all pressures regarding student enrolment surmounts to false reporting; but it does show that in some instances severe measures are taken to ensure student progress, causing tensions to rise between educators and the administration, eventually leading to a heightened level of dissatisfaction.

7.1.4 Job Demand Category: Personal

The personal job demand category aimed to capture how SLIEs' personal lives may interfere with work or add increased pressures at work. Examples of the personal job demand category include personal illness, family bereavement, or furthering education in a different field. These are considered demands because personal experiences can challenge educators at work as their attention becomes increasingly fragmented. While demands at work remain, demands at home increase as well (Berg 2001). Quantitatively, this category was ranked as the 3rd major job demand category and specific demands within the category were identified

from most demanding to least demanding as 1) Family; 2) Educational Pursuits; 3) Hobbies. Although some SLIEs selected 'other', there was no explanation on what this 'other' meant. However, after completing the qualitative analysis, it was evident SLIEs did not see their personal life as impacting their work, but rather they saw their work interfering with their personal lives, suggesting it is likely they may be struggling to maintain work-life balance.

The notion that work interferes with the personal lives of academics is not unique to sign language interpreter educators, as the literature reports cases of educators who struggle to find the balance between work and personal lives. Berg (2001) and Jacobs and Winslow (2004) report academics of all positions find themselves working hours that exceed 50 hours per week. Thus, those who have responsibilities outside of the workplace are finding this balance exceptionally difficult, especially for those who are also practicing as interpreters. Jacobs and Winslow (2004) concluded demands faced by academics, who are also parents, often find it difficult to feel like they are good parents and also succeed at work due to the extreme work demands. The SLIEs who participated in this study were predominantly women, which mirrors the gender make-up of sign language interpreter practitioners (Bontempo and Napier 2007). These findings indicate sign language educators as a whole are also primarily women. The SLIEs were also mostly experienced teachers, with an average of 14.5 years of teaching experience (see: Chapter 3, section 3.6.2). Therefore, findings from Jacob and Winslow (2004) along with Marcinkus and Hamilton's (2006) claim that middle aged women most often struggle with work-family balance due to personal obligations, may strongly resonate with sign language interpreter educators. The SLIEs in this study generally expressed working long nights and weekends and some even conveyed difficulties sleeping. Such experiences clearly demonstrate how work lives interfere with their personal lives. Berg (2001) describes this how in the time of new managerialism academics in Sweden have conformed to become the "absent worker"[48], a phenomenon conceptualised as to how a person must not have any personal responsibility outside their place of work, and if they have career aspirations their loyalty to their workplace must be prioritised over that of their family. Berg's (2001) study accounted for academics, both men and women, bringing work home with them, feeling like they had to choose between work

[48] Originally coined by Acker (1990) who describes workplaces being more suitable for workers who have neither family nor a private life to distract them from the demands of the workplace in order to further their career trajectory.

and family, and also in some cases opting to adhere to work demands over family. Furthermore, Berg also reported academics not being able to properly take care of themselves when they are ill because there are fewer lecturers and they could not ask colleagues who are already over worked to take their place. What is interesting to note about the Swedish context, is that in Sweden, family responsibility is a joint responsibility shared equally by both parents (Berg 2001). Therefore, for those female sign language interpreter educators who are working in countries that foster more traditional divisions of household labour and care, their work experiences in conjunction to new managerialism structures and policies may affect them more than male academics in their same institution.

7.1.5 Job Demand Category: External

In this study, the external job demand category accounts for the external stakeholders affiliated with SLIEs and their programmes. Neave (2002) describes how relationships between higher education and external stakeholders require higher education institutions to pay attention to the values and beliefs of the stakeholders. This is especially relevant to sign language interpreter education, as its roots are directly tied to external stakeholder communities, which include deaf and interpreting communities, professional organisations, and in some cases external accrediting bodies. Referring back to Chapter 4, section 4.3.6 and Chapter 6, section 6.5, issues concerning external accreditation and mapping will require further research, as the results in this study were deemed inconclusive. However, based on Phase 1 results presented in Webb and Napier (2015), it is an area worth exploring, as those interviewed who had external regulatory affiliations expressed such a constraint as a major demand.

Practicing sign language interpreters were identified quantitatively as the most demanding external stakeholder for the SLIEs in this study. It appears the sign language interpreting community does add a layer of pressure on interpreter educators. A question to consider, based on this finding is, why is pressure added and not support provided? Chapter 2, section 2.3.2, presents research from Ott (2012), which describes horizontal violence as a challenge faced by students, graduates and practising interpreters themselves. Therefore, a possible explanation for SLIEs not feeling supported by sign language interpreters in their community may be examples of horizontal violence. This may also explain why sign language interpreters as an external stakeholder group were perceived to be the most demanding external stakeholder for the SLIEs. As educators attempt to carefully navigate these

relationships, the added higher education constraints, such as the budget, and not having the appropriate financial resources available, makes these relationships even more difficult. SLIEs described how they often ask professional interpreters to mentor students for free and without university funding available, yet they feel the need to personally remunerate volunteers. This desire to remunerate external contributors (e.g. deaf people, interpreters, mentors) to sign language interpreter education emerged as a theme throughout this research.

Relationships between higher education and its stakeholders should be mutually beneficial. Godfrey (2010) found programmes that include service learning and practicum opportunities make a difference in the student learning experience. For example, when the needs of deaf communities are carefully considered through service learning initiatives, students will not only better develop linguistic and cultural competencies, but they can also be directly involved in changing and bettering society alongside deaf people (Shaw and Roberson 2009). Further, practicum opportunities will strengthen the relationships between employers, deaf communities and future graduates, while also providing supervision opportunities can improve the transition into the workforce (Dean and Pollard 2009; Heatherington 2012). Alternatively, educators and programmes who do not have positive experiences with their local communities may need to take pause and re-evaluate how they work with their communities, and begin to try to strengthen the process to strengthen those relationships. While this may be difficult in a climate of neoliberalism, by properly cultivating relationships, there will be positive implications on student learning and the profession at large (Shaw and Roberson 2009). If stakeholders do not see graduates as competently prepared for the workforce, as suggested by Olsen (2000 as cited in Kogan 2009), they may begin to question the credibility of the educators, the programme', and/or the institutions; which is also likely why some SLIEs see their personal reputation tied to the performance of students' skills and abilities upon graduation.

7.1.6 Job Demand Category: Employment Status

Prior to the development and distribution of the JDRS-IE, the scoping study identified five job demand categories. However, during the thematic analysis of the JDRS-IE a sixth category was identified. SLIEs in this study report that their employment status, those holding non-permanent positions, affected their job performance as well as added to the workload of others. The literature describes an increase in the number of non-permanent, or hourly contracted staff and the impact this has on them and their students' performance

(Umbach 2007, Johnson 2010, Dolan 2011). Dolan's (2011) study (see: Chapter 2, section 2.4.3), reflects findings presented in Chapter 6, section 6.6. SLIEs in non-permanent positions perceived they did not have access to in-depth communication with others teaching in the same programme. They expressed feeling undervalued, and similar to the other SLIEs, they lack paid opportunities for skill development. Furthermore, they reported working unpaid hours attending meetings or looking for information that they are not easily privy to. Despite their dissatisfaction with these experiences, they remain in their positions due to their beliefs that teaching is a valuable contribution to the profession. However, even with a high level of motivation, the feelings of disconnect with the department in which they work should not be dismissed. Dolan (2011) reports similar experiences of non-permanent staff and suggest that lack of communication between employees, co-workers and administrators can have negative effects on the educator, such as feelings of isolation, job insecurity, and frustration (Dolan 2011).

Similarly, as presented in Chapter 6, one of the SLIEs in this study who holds a permanent position reported how she has become the main point of contact for non-permanent staff. She claims this role adds to her workload and has been unaccounted for. When situations like this occur, unequal power relationships between permanent and non-permanent staff may arise (Purcel 2007). Furthermore, non-permanent staff members, without job security may change from term to term, leaving permanent staff in a quandary regarding how much time to invest. This potentially will further impact collegiality, an important source of job satisfaction (Harris et al, 2001; Smith and Tziner 1998). Due to the lack of job security that non-permanent staff face, each time a person is no longer available to teach, the person in the permanent position may be forced to find replacements or teach the course themselves, and monitor teaching activities; potentially taking up more non-allocated workload time (Bettinger and Long 2011). This could ultimately lead both parties to experience frustration with each other, as well as increase animosity toward the neoliberal philosophies that have changed the landscape of higher education.

7.2 Research question 2: What job resources are considered essential by sign language interpreter educators and are they satisfied with such resources in managing their job demands?

This study set out to identify resources sign language interpreter educators perceive to be essential in their work, as well as if they were satisfied with their access to such resources.

Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) theory suggests job resources correlate to work engagement and there is a distinctive relationship between job demands and resources (Bakker and Demerouti 2014). As previously described in Chapter 2, section 2.6, job resources can buffer the impacts of job demands, and therefore employees are better able to manage the demands. Ten resource categories were originally investigated (Webb and Napier 2015), but this study also included coping strategies, which is discussed as the 11th resource category in section 7.2.11. Further, while literature shows that resources have various types of influence over student achievement (see: Hanushek 1997), this study is not exploring how resources *alone* directly impact student learning, rather it explores how sign language interpreter educators perceive resources, or the lack there of, to affect their working conditions, which thereby can hinder to what extent they can manage their job demands and effectively perform in their academic roles. If a sign language interpreter educator's job performance is not optimal, or she is unable to effectively manage job demands, student achievement may be impacted (see: section 7.4). Sections 7.2.1-7.2.7 discuss essential job resources perceived by SLIEs, as well as their satisfaction levels with identified resources in relation to relevant literature.

7.2.1 Job Resource Category: Time

The SLIEs perceived time to be their most essential job resource. While they also view programme duration and the limited amount of contact hours with students as a job demand (note that these restrictions are related to systems and structures within the higher education institution), it is additional time they need most, making it equally considered a resource. This perception of the essentiality of time may be reflective of the essential value of autonomy that academics traditionally hold (Randle and Brady 1997; Henkel 1997; Harris 2005). SLIEs prioritise their time for student interactions and/or reallocating their time to put students first. Two possible reasons they may be prioritising students above nonstudent related workload related tasks (e.g. administrative, paperwork, committee meetings) are as follows:

- As findings in Chapter 4 show, student expectations are quantitatively considered the most demanding job demand faced by SLIEs, thus they may prioritise student needs in order to manage those expectations.
- As findings in Chapter 6 and in Webb and Napier (2015) show, SLIEs feel a level of personal/professional responsibility about their jobs, the interpreting profession, and the deaf communities and therefore, they may prioritise students.

While SLIEs perceive they have enough time to manage all their workload tasks, they also express how they bring work tasks home with them working nights and weekends etc. (see: Chapter 4, sections 4.3.2, 4.4.2, 4.6,1-4.6.2, and Chapter 6, section 6.3). Perlow (1999) and Branka et al. (2012) describe how academics often experience a fragmented work day, as they struggle to attend to their tasks effectively, which reduces their overall productivity. With this in mind, it is reasonable to ascertain that either SLIEs are also experiencing a fragmented work day and bringing work home to improve their productivity, or merely that they did not have enough time to manage their workload during regular working hours. The latter being comparable how workload allocation models often do not reflect the realities faced by academics (Houston et al. 2006). If academic workloads are not accurately depicted, then they will not be allocated enough time to effectively manage tasks, and consequently take work home with them further throwing work-life balance out of kilter.

7.2.2 Job Resource Category: Classroom Materials

Quantitatively, classroom materials were ranked as the second most essential job resource to SLIEs. The classroom materials they identified the most dissatisfaction with are language and interpreting specific videos. The importance of, and the lack of, needed classroom materials for sign language and sign language interpreter education courses were described by contributors within Napier (2009), as well as by Quinto-Pozos (2011) (see: Chapter 1, section 1.2). Further, as identified in the scoping study (Webb and Napier 2015), classroom materials are dependent upon the country the sign language interpreter education programmes are in, as some countries have more access to materials; different countries have different sign languages therefore materials cannot easily be shared. This finding is statistically confirmed in this study. Qualitatively, the dissatisfaction described by the SLIEs in this study was twofold. First, in many cases, classroom materials are simply not available which in turn adds to workload demands because educators have to try and source or create teaching materials. Not only does this impact SLIEs workload demands, but if all educators are developing their own resources, programmes will not be able to adequately standardize their programmes from teacher to teacher, which may also impact their ability to effectively benchmark assignments and assessments (Bontempo and Levitzke-Gray 2009). Second, when resources are publicly available funding is often unavailable to purchase them, which is reflective of implications of the current economic landscape across higher education institutions (Oliff et al. 2013). However, as described in Chapter 6, section 6.7 and Webb

and Napier (2015) sign language interpreter educators often compensate for the lack of available funding by purchasing needed materials themselves. A likely explanation for their willingness to purchase needed materials is the goals and values academics traditionally hold, where they are reported to be loyal to students and colleagues with a concern for academic standards (Randle and Brady 1997), as well as the personal and professional responsibility that SLIEs feel towards the deaf community and sign language interpreting profession. Thus, if the resources they need to do their jobs are not provided by the institution, but are available for purchase, those who opt to purchase them independently remain loyal to the student learning experience and may also feel they have some control over the academic standards which they value.

7.2.3 Job Resource Category: Programme Components

A curriculum is the skeleton of a programme, and its design is instrumental to effective delivery of course content. It was considered by the SLIEs in this study to be statistically the third most essential resource they have access to. However, findings also showed SLIEs in this study were not equally satisfied with the curriculum they had available to them, notably those working in non-permanent positions that did not have access to a curriculum at all. Curricula are essential to SLIEs, thus it is reasonable to assert how imperative it is for all educators regardless of their employment status, to be aware of what the curriculum includes, and how classes connect to each other to deliver the programme effectively to students.

As previously discussed in section 7.1.1, academics engaging in research is vital; while research has expanded over the years on sign language interpreting and interpreter education, and educators are increasingly engaging with research (Monikowski 2017), it is time for educators to use it in a way that influences decision-making about the curriculum, assessment, and teaching practices in a more systematic way (Winston 2013, p 170). For example, Monikowski (2017) describes how 17 sign language interpreter educators refer re students to academic research texts within their programmes. Students who have benefited from the application of research into their education programme have benefited by developing greater appreciation for ethics, their role as interpreters, and better understanding of the work they do and the strategies they employ when doing that work (Napier 2005). If the current preparation of sign language interpreters are not meeting demands for qualified interpreters (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005; Bontempo and Napier 2009; Leeson and Lynch 2009; Winston 2013), then it is possible Winston's claims are accurate and even when

programmes have a curriculum available, as it currently stands, many of them remain inadequate. Additionally, when many sign language interpreter educators are not engaging in research, as described by findings in this study, as well as by Monikowski (2013), how are they to know the most current developments and make ample changes to the curriculum to best support students?

Findings also show those SLIEs who perceive their curriculum as 'up-to-date', do not have time to strengthen nor improve it. Furthermore, while having a curriculum may buffer effects of job demands and assist educators with teaching delivery tasks, programme duration, as a higher education constraint, has made it difficult for educators to do their jobs. Results in this study indicate there is not enough time to actually teach what needs to be taught even when there is a curriculum available. Moreover, as described in Chapter 6 (section 6.7), one SLIE claims that while she has access to a curriculum, she does not see the benefits of it or how it supports her in her job. Her response shows a hampered understanding of curriculum uses and benefits for programme delivery. This is indicative of claims made by Monikowski (2013), Winston (2010), and contributors to Napier (2009) who claim that sign language interpreter educators do not have sufficient teaching and research backgrounds. These findings also bring about further questions as to how many sign language interpreter educators are using curricula that is research led, research-based, research oriented, and research informed (Healey 2005a).

Finally, while some SLIEs may understand the importance of curricula and have a desire to have it guide them in their course delivery, many of the non-permanent SLIEs in this study reported difficulties in receiving information about their programme's curriculum. This caused them to independently decide how to design and deliver their assigned classes, in hopes they align with the big picture. Certainly, this may cause unintentional content overlaps, uncoordinated assessment tasks, and have impacts on student learning, as suggested by Umbach (2007), Johnson (2010) and Dolan (2011).

7.2.4 Job Resource Category: Motivation

Quantitative results in this study suggest SLIEs ranked motivation as their fourth most essential job resource. Motivation is also a job resource they are satisfied with (see: Chapter 4, sections 4.7.2 and Chapter 6, section 6.7). The motivation category assessed perceptions of SLIEs' satisfaction with their internal motivation and external motivation. Internal motivation relates to what drives an individual based on what they enjoy and their interests;

and external motivation is what creates actions based on intended outcomes (Ryan and Deci 2000). As seen in Chapter 4 section 4.7.2, they are more satisfied with their levels of internal motivation than external motivation. Menges and Austin (2001) believe reasons for educator motivation are unclear. However, a likely explanation for their strong sense of internal motivation is that findings show the SLIEs as having a strong sense of personal and professional responsibility (Webb and Napier 2015), professional identity (Billot 2010) and traditional academic values (Randle and Brady 1997).

Furthermore, the distinct statistical difference showing they are less satisfied with external motivation factors (while still generally satisfied just less so), may relate to overall dissatisfaction with salary, or feeling unsupported by administrators and colleagues, and for some holding non-permanent contracts it may relate to their feelings of disconnectedness. These factors are explored in depth in Chapter 6 (section 6.7). Personal resources are considered a key aspect of JD-R theory. They have been seen to foster individuals to be resilient to stress and moderate the relationship between job demands and employee health impairment (Van Yperen and Snijders 2000). Therefore, while SLIEs do not have access to many essential physical job resources, which does present challenges, they appear to rely on their high levels of internal motivation as a personal resource, thereby keeping them engaged with their work and reducing the impacts of their job demands. Other examples of personal resources are examined in 7.2.11 as coping strategies.

7.2.5 Job Resource Category: Support

Support is a major resource helping employees manage job demands. SLIEs ranked support as the 5th most essential job resource. While support comes in many different forms, this study attempted to see whether or not sign language interpreter educators feel supported by deaf community members, professional interpreters, internal and external colleagues, and their administration. Although general feelings of support in the workplace were reported, there were two key groups SLIEs did not feel supported by, which include administrators, and colleagues (professional interpreters and other interpreter educators). However, before describing these areas of dissatisfaction, the following paragraph describes how SLIEs feel supported by their local deaf community.

Findings suggest the SLIEs in this study feel supported by local deaf communities. Deaf communities are considered a key stakeholder to the interpreting profession (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005), and equally sign language interpreter education programmes

are seen as stakeholders to deaf communities (Wagner 2014). Considering the notion that interpreter educators feel supported by deaf communities may suggest a mutually beneficial relationship exists between these stakeholder groups. Additionally, when deaf community members are involved directly with the interpreter education processes, they are able to be part of the developmental process of future service providers. With that said, these findings do not rule out how some sign language interpreter educators will have less positive experiences with deaf community members, which was originally found in Phase 1, the scoping study of this research (Webb and Napier 2015). Therefore, this finding, as with all the findings of this research does not aim to generalise experiences of sign language interpreter educators, but to provide a scope of understanding to what experiences sign language interpreter educators encounter.

Lack of collegial support was highlighted in the quantitative and qualitative analyses. Thematic analysis of the SLIEs' comments about their colleagues indicated SLIEs do not perceive to feel as strongly supported by their colleagues, as originally suggested quantitative findings. This is concerning because as reported by Kinman and Wray (2013), collegial support is a coping strategy in the academic environment and can reduce feelings of stress, and potentially influence job dissatisfaction (Harris et al. 2001; Smith and Tziner 1998). While not all SLIEs elected to share details about collegial experiences, those who did describe relationships with internal colleagues as challenging (see: chapter 6, section 6.7). Additionally, the interpreting community at large was identified as being a stakeholder group which was notably unsupportive. Yet, external colleagues were considered more supportive than internal colleagues. An explanation for these findings may be that external colleagues who are supportive are those interpreters and interpreter educators who are outside of their local interpreter community. These relationships have become increasingly possible with organisations such as the World Association of the Deaf, the World Association of Sign Language Interpreters, Conference of Interpreter Trainers, and the European Forum of Sign Language Interpreters, who have created opportunities to network beyond the local level. While the increased networks may not entirely replace the desire for collegiality amongst those who work directly with each other, the relationships may buffer the more negative experiences they may have with people locally and thereby they still feel generally supported.

As findings show in Chapter 4 (section 4.5.2) the SLIEs perceived their administrators to be the least supporting body. SLIEs expressed they feel misunderstood by, unengaged with, and just not supported by administrators. The increased workload, misaligned expectations, and lack of physical resources may contribute to their frustrations. These observations parallel findings reported by Fredman and Doughney (2011), Oshagbemi (1996) and the Pew Higher Education Research Group (1996) described in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.2). However, even though they are experiencing frustrations with their administration, the SLIEs remain committed to their roles as educators, which is similar to Boyer's (1990) findings presented in Chapter 2 (section 2.5.1). This further explains why the SLIEs ranked the administration job resource category as the least essential resource (further described in section 7.2.10). Although administrative support would be great, it is not as essential for the SLIEs to get their work done.

7.2.6 Job Resource Category: Professional Development

Professional development includes feedback through appraisal and evaluation including training received through conferences, seminars, and workshop attendance. When academics have the appropriate education and training, they have been seen to improve teaching practices and student learning (Borko 2004; Desimone et al. 2002; Fishman et al. 2003; Garer et al. 2001). Findings in this study clearly indicated SLIEs to be actively engaging in professional development opportunities. However, while they are engaging in professional development activities, what specific type of professional development is undertaken is less clear and appears mostly related to interpreting practices rather than being related to teaching and research. This is suspected because the opportunities they are engaging with are not being provided or funded by the higher educational institutions. Furthermore, most of the SLIEs are also qualified interpreter practitioners, which indicates they are required to engage in continuing professional development for practice by respective regulation bodies. This appears to align with Bontempo and Levitzke-Gray's (2009) description of interpreter educators in Australia who engage with professional development on a whim, and when they do so it is self-funded.

As indicated, SLIEs described how professional development opportunities are not being financially supported. While higher education institutions may find allocating financial resources to the purposes of professional development difficult in times of financial austerity (Koldney 2000; Oliff 2013), these findings suggest higher education institutions should

evaluate their budgets and when possible allocate financial support to educators so they can further develop professionally as educators. Especially considering professional development has been seen to enhance personal resources which can mitigate the negative effects of job demands. Additionally, since sign language interpreter educators often are not at the same academic levels of academics across other disciplines (Monikowski 2013), and sign language interpreting students continue to graduate without needed skills and abilities (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2005; Bontempo and Napier 2009; Leeson and Lynch 2009; Winston 2013), if higher educational institutions increase and allocate investments toward professional development, SLIEs will be able to enhance their skills, specifically related to research, teaching and pedagogy with a future benefit to the overarching teaching and learning experience.

The final form of professional development the SLIEs were least satisfied with was administrative evaluation and appraisal processes. This aligns with findings from the scoping study (Webb and Napier 2015), describing that when their administrators lack awareness of sign language, sign language interpreting, and wider deaf issues, SLIEs face additional challenges in the workplace. The evaluation and appraisal processes that are not considered beneficial, as found in this study, may also relate to the findings showing how SLIEs feel unsupported by their administrators.

7.2.7 Job Resource Category: Financial Resources

Economic climates across higher education institutions are predominantly strained (Ward 2007), and the experiences reported by SLIEs in this study depicted similar experiences. While it was not overly expected for all SLIEs to know how their programmes are funded, this job resource category aimed to explore if the SLIEs felt they had access to financial resources which help them effectively manage their job demands. Quantitatively, respondent satisfaction was relatively divided between being satisfied with financial resources, to those that were not, (See: Chapter 4, section 4.5.4) and the majority of SLIEs were unsatisfied with their salary. Additionally, SLIEs were also divided with their satisfaction of programme specific funding. Themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis presented in Chapter 6 (section 6.7) showed that SLIEs are dissatisfied with not having money for staffing, remunerating guest lectures and mentors, improved technology, professional development, all of which is reflective of the economic climate of their institution and institutions at large (Wilmot 1998; Ward 2007; Oliff et al. 2013). Furthermore, SLIEs perceived administrators

to be concerned about student enrolment numbers, which they reported directly related to the generation of income.

Accounts of budget cuts and their implications on staffing, facilities and technological resources have been documented in the literature (Burgess and Samuels 1999; Oliff et al. 2013; Peters and Turner 2014). In response to these cuts, higher education institutions have had to make decisions on how to prepare for times of austerity. Consequences of budgetary constraints have left academics, as a whole, in difficult situations. Yet, for some academics, turning to research grants is an option. While application processes can add to time demands, they can generate income and offset any losses (Estermann et al. 2013; Gunn and Mintrom 2016). However, this may be particularly challenging for sign language interpreter educators not actively involved in research, a finding as previously discussed in section 7.1. Therefore, it is plausible SLIEs do not have much access to external funding opportunities to support teaching, learning and research initiatives. Without proper investment into higher education, as well as their schools, departments, and programmes, they risk losing a competitive edge, and thereby standards are lowered in terms of teaching and learning (Browne 2010).

7.2.8 Job Resource Category: Human Resources

Just as student numbers are a concern for the administration, at times they may also concern staff, because with fewer students there are fewer opportunities to increase staff numbers (Cave et al. 2007; Miller 2007; Minchin 2013). The majority of SLIEs from the JDRS-IE indicated they work with teams between three and six members. Of those numbers, there were between zero and three holding full-time positions (see: Chapter 3, section 3.6.2). Further, in the scoping study (Webb and Napier 2015) it was identified that small staff sizes create challenging work environments for SLIEs, as there is not enough staff to distribute and share workload responsibilities. This may be another reason that many interpreter educators perceive their work as impacting their personal lives and often find themselves bringing work home with them. Moreover, they reported working in departments without needed staff resources. Such conditions make it difficult to cover staff absences (illness, maternity leave etc.), which are similar to findings by Berg (2001). This finding also parallels conclusions made by Barrett and Barrett (2007) as described in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.3), and instigates more questions. For example, in times of crisis, how are sign language interpreter educators supported and what plans are in place to cover their teaching? Or does the high sense of personal/professional responsibility prevent them from appropriate measures of self-care?

Furthermore, while this finding initiated additional questions, it also provided another possible solution as to why SLIEs feel more supported by external colleagues than internal colleagues. For there may not be any in-house colleagues to work with in the first place; therefore, they do not have other interpreter educators to support them within their higher education institution. Whatever the reason may be, with the heavy workload faced by SLIEs, the lack of human resources is making it difficult when managing workload related demands. Furthermore, a new finding in relation to human resources was the specific job demand category related to employment status, as SLIEs in non-permanent positions have additional demands that they face (previously discussed in section 7.1.6).

7.2.9 Job Resource Category: Facilities

The facilities that accommodate the learning environment are important to both the teaching and learning processes (Whiteside et al. 2010; Walker 2011). The SLIEs in this study ranked facilities as their 9th most essential resource. While statistical results indicate the aggregate were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with facility related resources, the qualitative results shared stories of interpreter educators who describe their institutions as not providing top quality labs for interpreter training. Wilson and McDade (2009) describe interpreting labs at a university in Scotland as not being equipped to meet sign language interpreting students' needs. They claim sign language interpreting students were disadvantaged in comparison to spoken language interpreting students at the same university. Dissatisfaction reported in the JDRS-IE stems from the notion that their institutions do not keep up with the advancements of technology, which is similar to findings presented by Douglass (1996) (described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.3). Notably, one interpreter educator in this study suggested labs are obsolete and students should bring their own technological resources to class for filming (see: Chapter 6 section 6.7). Sign language interpreter students need access to cameras and computers to record their sign language interpreting work. Yet, her point disregards higher education as an inclusive opportunity and if programmes do not provide training spaces for students their learning experiences will be limited, and the ways in which teachers can deliver course offerings will also be limited.

7.2.10 Job Resource Category: Administration and Management

SLIEs' perceptions of their administrators' expertise and management style was explored during the JDRS-IE. Chapter 2 section 2.4.1 describes how new managerialism has been a response to neoliberal philosophies that have shifted the very nature of higher education

towards marketisation. While administrators were considered the least essential resource for SLIEs quantitatively, after conducting a qualitative thematic analysis of their comments, it became clear it was an area of dissatisfaction (see: Chapter 6, section 6.7).

SLIEs reported to be most dissatisfied with their administrators' lack of understanding about the complexities of the role of sign language interpreter educator. As described in section 7.2.5, they feel unsupported by their administrators and there were several comments in relation to the negative experiences they face when dealing with the work environment (see: Chapter 6, section 6.7). While they considered administrative resources as a least essential resource category quantitatively, issues with administrators were an issue heavily expanded upon in comments, and this difference was noted during the qualitative analysis. Therefore, a likely explanation for these results is that these SLIEs are not overly dependent upon the administrators to do their jobs, but they still see the value in resolving some of the issues in order to enhance the teaching and learning experience.

The notion that academics are frustrated with their administrators is not a unique experience for sign language interpreter educators, as these tensions have been described in the literature and were presented in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2. It has been seen that administrators and academic staff often have conflicting paradigms and hold different goals, values, assumptions and management ethos (Randle and Brady 1997). In this regard, these SLIEs are similar to other academics who too experience feelings of frustration, disconnect, and dissatisfaction. However, where sign language educators may differ is in regards to feeling misunderstood by the administration (as described in Chapter 6). The differing expectations between the administration and SLIEs appear to relate to how interpreter educators serve as gatekeepers to interpreting profession (Hunt and Nicodemus 2014), which impacts on the type of access deaf people have to mainstream society. Furthermore, considering the small nature of the interpreting profession (Jackman 1999), the slow process of professionalisation (Bontempo 2013), and how sign language interpreter educators often have less academic qualifications as compared to academic counterparts in other disciplines (Monikowski 2013), it can be surmised that higher administrative roles within higher education are not often held by those affiliated to sign language interpreting or sign language interpreter education. However, if they did promote up the administrator career trajectory, it would increase opportunities to explain relevant factors to administrators which could be advantageous. Without administrators having a full understanding of what it means to train students to a

standard that will meet the needs of deaf people, frustrations between academics and administrators will remain. For example, they may be able to have workloads altered to include more time to devote to assessment (Knight 2006), or may be able to avoid cuts to student contact hours, which are vital for language learning (Nunan 1998).

7.2.11 Job resource category: Coping strategies

Coping strategies are considered types of personal resources (see: Chapter 2, section 2.6.4) and were investigated as part of the JDRS-IE. While motivation was explored separately to investigate the differences between internal and external motivation, SLIEs' perspectives of satisfaction with their coping strategies such as intellect, social outlets, entertainment outlets, exercise, attitudinal were also explored. Considering people utilise coping strategies differently (Gmelch et al. 1984), it is interesting to note that statistically, they were relatively satisfied with personal coping strategy resources. This result, along with results that show their satisfaction with levels of motivation, views of their job being a personal and professional responsibility, and their high levels of personal accomplishment, may suggest personal resources to be actually the most essential resources that help SLIEs avoid the harmful effects job demands can have on employees. This is said noting the economic climate of higher educational institutions, which indicate cuts will continue and resources are not likely to increase any time soon (see: Chapter 2, section 2.4.3).

Previous studies indicate self-efficacy to be a characteristic amongst teachers (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy 2007) and can lessen the chances of burnout (Friedmand and Farber 1992; Skaalvik 2007). Furthermore, Bontempo and Napier (2011) found interpreter practitioners to have a strong sense of self-efficacy, as 81% of the interpreter practitioners included in their study, identified themselves as more than competent, even though they also identified several skills gaps. Therefore, since many sign language interpreter educators are also typically practising interpreters (e.g. 93.2% of SLIEs in my study), it would seem reasonable to assert that many sign language interpreter educators also exhibit a strong sense of self-efficacy as characterised of sign language interpreter practitioners (Bontempo and Napier 2011). Furthermore, the notion that SLIEs have a strong sense of self-efficacy is further supported by findings from Walker et al. (2006) who found a strong correlation between self-efficacy and motivation. As described in section 7.2.4, the SLIEs in this study are highly motivated. Therefore, although SLIEs perceive to have high job demands, they may also have higher levels of self-efficacy which help frame their goals; while fostering persistence and resilience

when faced with adversity (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy 2007). In relation to JD-R theory, characteristics such as self-efficacy, and various coping strategies serve as personal resources which are helping SLIEs buffer the impacts of their job demands in order to help them accomplish their work goals.

Section 7.2 described how SLIEs perceive essential job resources and their levels of satisfaction held to those resources. As described by Bakker and Demerouti (2014), the relationships between job demands and job resources can impact employees' overall wellbeing. Therefore, section 7.3 describes the wellbeing of SLIEs who participated in Phase 3 of the study in relation to relevant literature.

7.3 Research question 3: In consideration of sign language interpreter educator wellbeing, are sign language interpreter educators engaged in their work or burned out by their work?

Chapter 5 presents results from Phase 3, a smaller study investigating wellbeing in regards to their feelings of burnout and work engagement of the SLIEs who participated in the JDRS-IE. Results showed that SLIEs are averagely engaged in their work. Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) definition of work engagement contextualised this research and they define work engagement as "a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption" (p. 295). The scoping study initially indicated SLIEs feel personally and professionally responsible in their roles as educators (Webb and Napier 2015), and this result further confirmed findings from the JDRS-IE. This feeling of personal and professional responsibility appears to serve as a personal resource which is a motivating factor that supports engagement. This notion parallels to Roberts and Davenport's (2002) finding that suggests when people personally identify with their work, they are motivated and thereby engaged with their work.

Scores of the UWES-17 indicate there are aspects of work engagement present and are specifically related to absorption scores. The absorption score result was *very high*, while the other two subscales, vigour and dedication, came back as average, resulting in an average overall engagement score. As previously described in section 7.2.4, of this chapter, SLIEs' motivation may relate to ideas initially noted during the scoping study, which suggested that SLIEs' personal identity, as sign language interpreter practitioners, motivate them to work with their students, who they view as future colleagues eventually providing services to deaf people, which also includes friends and family members to the SLIEs. While the findings in

this study, as well as the scoping study indicate this to be the case for SLIEs, further studies on this topic are recommended.

Scores from the MBI-ES, as seen in Chapter 5 (section 5.2), show that SLIEs demonstrate average levels of emotional exhaustion, low scores of depersonalisation and high scores of personal accomplishment. Considering SLIEs perceive themselves to have high job demands, yet many essential job resources are unavailable to SLIEs, higher scores for emotional exhaustion were anticipated. Results showed SLIEs report experiencing emotional exhaustion at least monthly. Furthermore, within the qualitative analysis presented in Chapter 6, sections 6.7 and 6.8. it became noteworthy that many words SLIEs use to describe work experiences were negative indicating tiredness, a lack of energy, and feelings of stress.

JD-R theory describes how personal resources serve as a buffer between job demands and resources (see: Xanthopoulou et al. 2007, 2009; Bakker and Demerouti 2014). Therefore, it is feasible that those SLIEs who have high levels of motivation and are satisfied with their personal coping strategies and are able to offset the impacts of their job demands, despite the lack of other essential (more physical) resources (e.g. classroom materials, funding for professional development etc.). While personality was not investigated in this study, previous research has been conducted on personality of interpreter practitioners. These studies describe interpreters as versatile, adaptable and tolerant, self-confident, with the ability to take control and manage challenging situations (Seleskovitch 1978; Henderson 1980, 1987). Additionally, Bandura (1986) views personal accomplishment as a facet of self-efficacy connected to how individuals adjust to demanding situations. Not only did MBI-ES findings in this study reveal that SLIEs have a high sense of personal accomplishment, the statistical results of the JDRS-IE also show they have a strong sense of personal accomplishment.

In relation to SLIEs' wellbeing, it is important to refer back to Bontempo and Napier's (2011) study on psychological constructs of sign language interpreter practitioners in Australia, including self-efficacy, goal orientation, and negative affectivity (trait anxiety and neuroticism) of 110 Australian sign language interpreters. Although Bontempo and Napier's findings show goal orientation is not a factor of perceived professional confidence and that self-efficacy was of minor interest, they found those who indicated high levels of negative affectivity perceived lower levels of competence. Essentially, those who are considered emotionally stable, the opposite of neuroticism or emotionally instable, perceive their

personal performance and job competence to be higher. Thus, it may also be the case that the SLIEs within this study are emotionally stable, and therefore report higher levels of competence, or in this case, personal accomplishment.

SLIEs have many personal resources, and they show average levels of work engagement, and high levels of personal accomplishment. Furthermore, they are also report experiencing emotional exhaustion at least once a month, and lack many of needed job resources. In order to see the particulars of what specific areas might likely lead sign language interpreter educators to burnout, the AWS was included in the wellbeing study. Results from the AWS indicated two incongruent areas that put SLIEs in this study at risk for burnout; these areas include workload and fairness. The AWS suggests when areas demonstrate incongruence; employees may experience emotional exhaustion eventually leading to burnout (Leiter and Maslach 2011). Although the JDRS-IE is an independent survey instrument to the AWS, results from the JDES-IE show an imbalance between job demands and job resources, which includes a lack of administrative support. This is consistent with the issues of fairness being a potential risk factor to sign language interpreter educator wellbeing as emerged from the AWS. The JDRS-IE also reports interpreter educators experiencing heavy workloads, often bringing work home with them and it was also suggested that many of them struggle with work/life balance. Therefore, while SLIEs lean more toward engagement and are not *currently* burnt out, they should be aware of how workload and fairness issues may be the factors that most negitively impact them. This is important because of the findings that show they have difficulties detaching from their work, and are experiencing a level of emotional exhaustion. An implication of these findings is to communicate the identified misalignments within the AWS (workload/fairness) to sign language interpreter educators and those in positions of authority to take targeted steps in improving working conditions, which would help prevent further aggravation. Maslach and Leiter (1997) suggest when areas of mismatch are addressed; work engagement is thereby fostered, which again is a measure to avoid burnout. Thus, by acknowledging the current state of SLIEs within this research, administrators, programme coordinators and sign language interpreter educator can work collaboratively to improve the working conditions in order to avoid possible future burnout (Maslach and Goldberg 1998).

A further point to consider when referring to the wellbeing of SLIEs that emerged from findings within the JDRS-IE, includes how SLIEs perceive their primary responsibility to be

student learning and also their feelings of personal and professional responsibility. We must consider these observations along with the notion sign language interpreter educators are navigating the politics of the neoliberalist higher education institutions in which they work as well as the highly political profession of sign language interpreting (Wittier-Merithew and Johnson 2005), again emphasising the interconnectedness of both systems. This experience may be similar to those academics that hold dual roles as an educator and a professional in a domain outside of academia, potentially creating co-existing identities (Billot 2010). Therefore, when interpreting students graduate and remain unprepared to enter the profession, SLIEs may feel disappointed in themselves as they perceive own reputation is at stake. Such disappointment may lead to feelings of role strain described by Goode (1960), which have implications on wellbeing and job performance. The SLIEs in this study did not demonstrate feelings of adequate support from the higher education institutions in which they work, and the interpreting profession itself (specifically their local interpreting communities). Such conditions appear to make their working experiences difficult and potentially straining. Studies have shown similar challenges with nursing educators (Batey 1969; Williamson 1972).

In summary, SLIEs are engaged in their work. However, workload and fairness are areas which were identified as being a potential threat to increasing their feelings of emotional exhaustion and leading to feelings of burnout.. It is noteworthy there was a decline in participation from those who originally participated in the JDRS-IE, to those who opted to participate in Phase 3, and to those who actually did complete Phase 3. Of those who stated they would participate and did not, anecdotally a few of them personally reached out to me directly offering apologies along with explanations around workload constraints, and overall fatigue that prevented them from completing this phase of the research. While results of this study indicate average levels of engagement, it is not representative of the overall wellbeing of sign language interpreter educators. However, results provide a first step in understanding wellbeing of SLIEs. Further, it may be beneficial to conduct an additional study of a larger sample size to obtain a richer understanding of sign language interpreter educator wellbeing in terms of work engagement and burnout.

7.4 Research question 4: As perceived by sign language interpreter educators, how do job demands and job resources influence their job performance and overall programme operations in relation to the readiness to work gap faced by programme graduates?

SLIEs in this study perceive their job demands as having a direct and negative impact on students. While, they perceive they are managing the best they can, and even view themselves as effectively managing job demands, they also perceive their work demands to cause student learning to suffer and as a whole they are not confident in their students' abilities upon graduation. It is likely this perception is influenced by the imbalance between the job demands they face, and the limited resources available to them. Considering SLIEs' job demands in relation to the many identified resources that are unavailable, we can see how their overall performance can be limited, as if they had more time, more access to financial support, more classroom materials they would be able to offer much more to the learning experience.

We know educators and the institutions they work in have some level of impact on student achievement. For example, Hattie (1992, 1993, 1993, 1997, 1999, 2003) synthesised over 500,000 studies on the effects teachers, home, peers, schools, school administrators (e.g. principals) and students themselves have on student achievement. Although Hattie's research predominantly focuses on non-higher education institutions, his studies emphasise the importance teachers have in the classroom, and that educators do have an impact on student learning outcomes. Teaching practices and pedagogy, and embracing learner-centred teaching paradigms (Barr and Tagg 1995), educators can create a greater learning experience. But when neither educators nor their programmes are able to embrace such methods because of constraints placed on them by the higher education institution, or because of their unfamiliarity with such practices (Kember 2009), the student learning experience will be negatively affected.

In studies specific to higher education, we have seen how neoliberal philosophies and new managerialism have led to the marketisation of the higher education institutions (see: Chapter 2, section 2.4). Such shifts have created a much-changed political landscape for academics to navigate. While this study does not attempt to directly link job demands and job resource factors, or educator wellbeing to student achievement, the results indicated that SLIEs perceive these factors as impacting students. The literature described throughout Chapter 2 demonstrated the effects neoliberalism has had on higher education institutions. Therefore,

the perceptions SLIEs have of their working conditions in relation to student learning outcomes may be similar to issues explored by other scholars. For example, decisions regarding institutional budget cuts, the use of non-permanent staff (Burgess and Samuels 1999; Feignbaum and Ignai 2015), out of date educational facilities (Hovey 1995; Douglas 2006), as well as the lack of support for professional development (Bontempo and Levitzke-Gray 2009), and the overall reduction of resources (Oliff et al. 2013) have been shown to impact student achievement (see Bok 2009). Furthermore, academics' workloads continue to rise (Anderson 2008; Kinman and Wray 2016) and in response, increased levels of occupational related stress occur (Gillespie et al. 2001). The subsequent paragraphs present findings from this study that align with scholars conclusions that demonstrate working conditions are perceived to impact student achievement.

The results show workload demands and higher education constraints are the major job demands faced by SLIEs. Furthermore, combined with the lack of available resources the overall working conditions for SLIEs are poor. Time constraints have left them unable to teach what needs to be taught during the duration of the programme, which allows students to graduate without all the essential knowledge and skills expected of them. These SLIEs often feel pressured to meet enrolment requirements by their administration, and are scrambling to develop classroom materials to support their teaching. Furthermore, the higher education institutions in which they work are not paying for them to attend professional development opportunities and while this research cannot confirm, it is suspected that many of them are predominately engaging in sign language interpreter professional development rather than developing their teaching and research practices.

This study revealed that SLIEs are predominantly not engaging in research, as it is not a part of their workload allocation. This finding suggests that in many cases curricula are not research based, which suggests their teaching is also not grounded in research. Some programmes do not have a curriculum, and one SLIE even instigated not understanding its purpose or value in an academic context.

Often the SLIEs and their students do not have access to high quality language and interpreting labs, which could support their classroom teaching and individual student learning opportunities. The SLIEs also face challenges with colleagues, particularly those external to the institution, but at times they display challenges with internal colleagues as well. These challenges can jeopardise the student learning experience.

Many interpreter educators are isolated, as they are often one of very few staff working within a programme, and have few people to collaborate and share workload responsibilities with. Higher education institutions have opted to use non-permanent contracts to support teaching efforts and these educators have many additional challenges to deal with, particularly being disconnected from the programme and not having access to the overall curricula to see where their courses fit in, which may lead to inconsistent course delivery.

The aforementioned examples and other findings presented throughout this thesis have influenced my belief that perceptions sign language interpreter educators have of their performance and student achievement are linked to their working conditions, in relation to job demands and job resources. The quality of teacher performance has been impacted which in turn negatively affects student achievement. This belief is further supported by the finding that 50% of the SLIEs pass students who they do not deem as ready to advance. This finding is concerning, as if academics are choosing to pass, or being pressured to pass students to satisfy enrolment requirements, it will only perpetuate the RWG and also have further consequences for the interpreting profession and to deaf people in their attempts to participate in mainstream society.

7.5 Summary

This chapter set out to address the four guiding questions of this research by addressing the findings of the research and relate them to the literature. This research aimed to identify key job demands, essential job resources for SLIEs. From these factors the study further explored the relationship between job demands and job resources in order to identify possible impacts on SLIEs' wellbeing, their performance and student achievement particularly, job readiness. JD-R theory was the analytical framework underpinning this research. Section 7.1 provided insight into the experiences SLIEs have with six job resource categories. While results show that SLIEs perceive high job demands, quantitative results also indicate they believe they are able to effectively manage them. However, other findings, such as their tendency to bring work home and passing students who are not ready to advance, suggests they may not be managing demands as well as they expressed. However, it is not surprising they perceive themselves as managing their job demands, as it is believed SLIEs have a strong sense of self-efficacy. This was determined by results from Phase 3 where SLIEs reported high levels of absorption and personal accomplishment as well as due to previous

literature that suggests practicing sign language interpreters display high levels of self-efficacy, and the majority of SLIEs are also practicing sign language interpreter practitioners.

Section 7.2 explored the resources the SLIEs deemed as essential for managing their job demands, and their levels of satisfaction with such resources. SLIEs see time as the most essential job resource, and they often prioritise their time to attend to tasks related to students. Overall, the resources they are most satisfied with are related to their own levels of motivation, and other personal coping strategies (e.g. intelligence, attitude, and social outlets). All other resources, while many statistical results came back as neutral, individual data points were divided which indicate for as many who have access to the particular resource, there are just as many who do not. This is believed to mean that the experiences SLIEs have with resources vary, but in consideration of neoliberal philosophies, and the current economic landscape across higher education institutions at large it is presumed that mismatches between job demands and job resources are present for all SLIEs.

While they are lacking many essential job resources, their high levels of motivation, and views of personal accomplishment suggest they access several personal resources that are serving as a buffer to the impact of job demands.

Section 7.3 examined SLIEs' wellbeing; and while they do appear engaged in their work, they experience emotional exhaustion monthly, and identified workload and fairness as the two work life domains that if not carefully monitored, may push SLIEs towards burnout. In addition to these findings, the qualitative analysis revealed SLIEs are tired, overwhelmed and frustrated by their working conditions which are expected to impact their wellbeing. But it was suggested that a further study be carried out specifically on interpreter educator wellbeing.

Finally, section 7.4 highlighted that while the SLIEs perceive they are managing their job demands, they do see how their workload impacts student learning outcomes, do not always demonstrate levels of confidence their students are ready to work upon graduation, and even 50% acknowledged they pass students who were not ready to advance.

Although research on the RWG has been previously conducted (see: Patrie 2004, Anderson and Stauffer 19990, Godfrey 2010, Cogen 2015), it is important to see that it is not a single issue or that it will close this gap. The findings from this research highlighted several challenging issues that SLIEs face within the context of higher education, and show

connections between SLIEs, programmes, and the RWG. The notion that neoliberalism and new managerialism have affected SLIEs and sign language interpreter education programmes is clear. While higher education institutions are aligning with the market and sourcing funding from non-government organisations to support their educational initiatives (Carr et al. 2006), considering the current market disorder of the profession of sign language interpreting (Witter-Merithew and Johnson 2004), it may be difficult for sign language interpreter educators to align with the interpreting market in order to generate additional income to support their needs. However, the consequences of neoliberalism such as budget cuts, the use of non-permanent employees, reduced contact hours with students, the importance of student enrolment and graduation numbers, and little to no support to further develop educators professionally are challenges those connected with interpreter education need to be aware of. As these types of challenges are not likely to go away and they have become increasingly present across higher education institutions (Deem 1998; Lynch 2014). Yet, by making it clear as to what these challenges are, it is hoped that sign language interpreter practitioners and the profession at large will begin to take steps to work collaboratively with higher education institutions, particularly sign language interpreter educators, to improve the educational experience for sign language interpreting students, as well as ease their transition into the workplace with more realistic expectations of students' abilities upon graduation.

Chapter 8: Conclusions

This study is the first of its kind to use Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) theory to investigate sign language interpreter educators (SLIEs), the programmes they work in, and their perceptions as to how to how demands and resources impact their job performance and thereby influence student learning, thus contribute to the readiness to work gap (RWG). As previously stated, research related to the RWG of sign language interpreter graduates has primarily focused its attention on the sign language interpreters themselves (see: Chapter 1, section 1.2). This study is situated in the context that sign language interpreter education programmes balance their efforts within two competing systems; the profession of interpreting and higher education and the notion that educators can and do impact student achievement (see: Chapter 2, section 2.5.4). Hence, this research set out to explore perceived links between SLIEs' work experiences in the context of higher education, and how these experiences may affect student achievement in relation to the RWG.

Findings from this study revealed SLIEs do perceive their experiences in terms of job demands and job resources, as having an impact on the RWG. They perceived a clear relationship specifically between workload related job demands and student learning outcomes. Results showed SLIEs themselves bear witness to how their working conditions have an impact on student learning experiences. For example as their workload demands increase, their confidence in their students' professional readiness begins to decrease. Such findings demonstrate that SLIEs perceive student aptitude, cognitive flexibility, or personality to not be the only factors affecting students developing essential skills needed to become an interpreter.

Originally presented in Chapter 1 (section 1.2), Cogen and Cokely (2015) suggest that the RWG can be addressed by interpreter education programmes taking the following actions: 1) Improving language fluency outcomes; 2) Enhancing involvement with deaf communities; 3) Hiring deaf interpreters as educators 4) Furthering research on job types and associated risks; 5) Aligning programme goals to lower risk job types; 6) Providing structured post-graduation pathways into low to increasingly higher risk jobs. However, the complexity of higher educational institutions in response to neoliberalism, marketisation, as well as the imbalance between job demands and job resources, has made it difficult for SLIEs to implement such suggestions until larger systematic issues are resolved.

SLIEs are aware that changes need to occur, and yet, like many educators across other disciplines, they work in adverse conditions that expect them to do more with less (see: Chapter 2, section 2.4.1). Thus, while students' language fluency outcomes need to be improved, it may be difficult for educators to increase hours of language instruction when budget cuts are affecting the number of contact hours provided. Therefore, while programmes need restructuring and enhancement, under the current neoliberal climate of the higher education system and marketisation, many changes will not be possible without the external support of key stakeholders.

Cogen and Cokely's (2015) suggestion to increase the use of deaf sign language users may be done through the implementation of service learning projects (see: Shaw and Roberson 2009) and by inviting deaf people into the classroom for interactive roleplay activities, yet these experiences may be limited due to other constraints (e.g. community dynamics, and funding availability). Findings in this study showed that SLIEs struggle to decide whether to ask volunteers to assist with learning activities because they often do not have the means to remunerate them for their time. This issue appears to have layers of complexity as it relates to the awareness of power, privilege and not wanting to perpetuate the marginalisation of deaf people. Additionally, educators across spoken language interpreting programmes may not need to bring in native language users to their classroom as often because many spoken language interpreting and translation programmes send students to the particular country for full immersion up to a year in length. Full immersion is not an opportunity available to sign language interpreting students, as there is no "deafland" where they can go. Moreover, it may be atypical for educators from other disciplines to rely on as many external visitors to their classrooms. Therefore, having available funding to pay for additional classroom support is difficult to overcome, as it makes the sign language interpreting programme, on the surface, appear to be more expensive as compared to other programmes. Since additional financial support may not be readily accessible or supported, SLIEs are often left in the position to solicit for volunteers to support classroom needs. This leaves SLIEs in a dilemma of when and how often to seek volunteers. Similarly, hiring deaf interpreters to teach as suggested by Cogan and Cokely (2015) may also be ideal, but this too is dependent upon available deaf interpreters in the area, their educational background, and appropriate teaching experience. Further, the results in this study show that many programmes currently do not have enough permanent personnel.

Cogan and Cokely (2015) also suggest initiating a study on job types and job risks in their area; however, findings from this study, which align with findings by other researchers show that sign language interpreter educators are generally not actively engaged in research nor are they required to be, as their workloads are already full. Therefore, asking sign language interpreter educators to complete this type of task may not be realistic or manageable without additional support.

In response to the final two suggestions made by Cogen and Cokely (2015), it appears they view interpreter education to have sole responsibility in transitioning students from education to work. While programmes may be able to better align their programme goals to the lower risk jobs, when graduates are unable to perform all of the tasks of a professional interpreter, practicing interpreters and deaf consumers may still perceive them as having fallen into the RWG. This emphasises the need to clarify expectations as to the level of skills graduates must demonstrate upon graduation, as well as clearly defining the purpose of sign language interpreter education. Furthermore, developing post-graduation pathways to support transition into the workplace is not something higher education institutions can achieve alone. Therefore, this suggestion is unattainable without a clear partnership between the profession itself and the educational institutions. According to the findings in this research, SLIEs do not always feel supported by professional interpreters, and therefore the collaboration between education and practice may be challenging and limit the scope of such trajectories. Lastly, if those who make up the profession of interpreting hold views similar to Cogen and Cokely that sign language interpreter education programmes are sole entities responsible for the development of students' knowledge, skills and abilities, I believe the RWG will remain.

This study has successfully achieved its aims by answering the four guiding research questions in the discussion (see Chapter 7). In addition to those discussions, conclusions have been drawn from the findings and have implications for theory, practice and pedagogy. These considerations and contributions are presented in sections 8.2-8.4 of this thesis. However, it is important to first note the limitations to this study, which are provided in the following sections.

8.1 Limitations

This section describes six limitations of this study. These limitations include sample size, the survey instrument in terms of length, content and platform, my lack of familiarity with statistics, and finally the vast amount of data collected.

8.1.1 Sample Size

Phase 1 included eight sign language interpreter educators across four countries. Information of this sample can be found in Webb and Napier (2015). The sample size for the scoping study is considered adequate; however, the sample size for Phase 2, the main study included 66 participants. Originally it was anticipated a minimum of 100 sign language interpreter educators would participate in the JDRS-IE. This expectation was primarily based on the notion that because the study was not specific to one location and it welcomed interpreter educators from all nations to participate, and 66 total participants took part in the study. Of the 66 participants, 40 participants were from the U.S. and 26 participants were from outside the U.S and represented various other countries. Therefore, the sample size within the JDRS-IE chiefly depicts the interpreter educator experience in the U.S. Additionally, each participant from the JDRS-IE was invited to participate in Phase 3 and while 40 agreed to participate, only 29 followed through. Therefore, the overall sample size for both Phase 2 and Phase 3 was smaller than anticipated and did not reach saturation. However, it was reported by potential participants that the survey software, Bristol Online Surveys, used for the JDRS-IE, had technical glitches, another limitation discovered during the data collection for this study.

8.1.2 Platform used to develop the JDRS-IE

Bristol Online Survey was the platform used to design, distribute and analyse the JDRS-IE. When it was developed, an option for respondents to save responses prior to submission was added. However, many SLIEs reported that even though they pressed save, their progress was lost upon returning to their work. This caused SLIEs to either start over or opt out of participation. From feedback received via email and in person, it is believed some SLIEs did start over and successfully submit their completed surveys, while others opted out of completion, as it would be too time consuming to start the survey over.

8.1.3 Survey Length

The length of the JDRS-IE survey is another limitation of this research. It is possible participants experienced survey fatigue. Porter et al. (2004) describe survey fatigue as the time and effort involved in participating in a survey. Considering that longer surveys often result in lower response rates, it appears respondents may become fatigued by the survey and then abandon it. The JDRS-IE had 46 questions with multiple components within each question. Therefore, SLIEs may have experienced survey fatigue and were unable to complete the survey, influencing the previously discussed sample size, or lessened their desire to participate in the follow-up study for Phase 3. Nevertheless, the amount of data was sufficient and it was possible to draw conclusions from the data regardless of the sample size. However, the amount of data is also considered an additional limitation of this study and discussed in section 8.1.5.

8.1.4 Survey Design

Two limitations in the design of the survey have been identified: 1) time was not included as a specific job resource category to evaluate SLIEs' overall satisfaction with time as compared to other job resource categories; and 2) coping strategies were not included as an essential job resource category to be ranked, while individual coping strategies were ranked. However, due to the research approach, and amount of data collected, some conclusions could still be drawn about time and coping strategies.

8.1.5 Amount of Data Collected

Due to the length of the JDRS-IE, and the three different survey instruments used in this study, the amount of data collected became difficult to manage. However, while there was a smaller than anticipated sample size, the vast amount of data allowed for triangulation from multiple angles showed relationships between elements and provided a holistic understanding to the data set, which has allowed for conclusions to be drawn and discussed throughout this thesis.

8.1.6 Researchers Lack of Statistical Training

My own lack of statistical training is also a limitation identified in this study. Although time was invested into reading about statistics at an introductory level, as encouraged by Robson (1993), help and advice in carrying out quantitative data analysis was sought. However, had this support been sought prior to the development and distribution of the survey, it may have

been better designed, reducing possible survey fatigue and obtaining a more manageable amount of collected data to analyse.

Despite the limitations presented throughout section 8.1, the interdisciplinary nature of this study has contributed to educational, psychological and interpreting studies literature. It has provided a snapshot of how SLIEs self- report their experiences in the confines of neoliberalised higher education systems and pinpoint areas that if not careful, will lead to burnout. The findings from this study also have direct implications on theory, practice, and pedagogy and they are presented in sections 8.2-8.4.

8.2 Impact on Theory

JD-R theory (Bakker and Demerouti 2014) was the major analytical framework that guided this research. As the theory suggests, it can be applied to any occupation, and this study was the first to apply it to sign language interpreter educators within the context of higher education. Its flexibility to be applied to any occupational group has been beneficial for this research, as it allowed me to cast a wide net to efficiently gather a baseline of what experiences sign language interpreter educators face. Thus, the findings of this research contribute to the growing body of literature supporting the use of this theory in understanding the working conditions of employees in relation to their wellbeing and job performance.

However, while this theory has been beneficial to conduct this study, it is agreed that there is room for the theory to further develop (Schaufeli and Taris 2014). Criticisms argued by Schaufeli and Taris (2014), which were presented in Chapter 2 (section 2.6.5), became apparent throughout the research process in this study. While resources themselves can buffer job demands, when employees do not have access to resources, and are unable to attain them, it can negatively affect their wellbeing. In this case, it can be considered that the lack of resources itself is a demand SLIEs face. Additionally as identified by Crawford et al. (2010), some demands may actually be perceived as challenges, which can promote resilience. Results indicated many SLIEs have high levels of self-efficacy, therefore, they may see some of their job demands as challenges; which also aligns with Schaufeli and Taris (2014). They emphasised that when using JD-R theory in a study, scholars often revert to other theories in order to understand and interpret findings. Therefore, this study supports the need to redefine job demands and job resources; the definitions proposed by Schaufeli and Taris (2014) and presented in Chapter 2, section 2.6.5 are valuable contributions to JD-R

theory, and using these new definitions in future research can push forward a case for their inclusion into the theory.

Outwith JD-R theory, other fundamental theoretical contributions have emerged from this research. First, in relation to the literature presented in Chapter 2, section 2.2 on the purpose of higher education, there have been several perspectives on what the purpose of higher education is. Some scholars argue that the purpose of higher education is mainly to develop robust critical thinkers, problem solvers and cultivate students for students to become productive members of society. Other scholars argue the purpose of higher education is to foster students' personal and cognitive development. Additionally, criticisms have been made of higher education institutions and their ability to develop employable and work ready graduates (see: Chapter 2, section 2.3). Yet, if the reason higher education exists is to develop students personally and cognitively, and to become critical thinkers who are productive members of society, then arguably it should not matter if graduates leave programmes without all of the knowledge and skills of the workforce. Further, outside of higher education institutions, the workforce should provide professional skills to graduates via further training, supervision, and mentorship to ensure they are fit for the specific profession they are attempting to enter. Yet, for those who suggest the purpose of education should be primarily aimed at vocational based job training, where graduates are ready to work (Toutkoushian 2005), it is easy to see why criticisms of higher education not generating employable graduates arrise. Moreover, it is this belief that seems to align mostly with the views held by key stakeholders of the profession of sign language interpreting. Due to the academisation of sign language interpreters, many key stakeholders expect graduates of sign language interpreting programmes will be able to serve as practicing professionals, yet the widely discussed phenomenon of the RWG suggests that graduates are falling short of satisfying these expectations, regardless if such expectations are even reasonable.

As higher education institutions shift towards marketisation, they become increasingly dependent upon the relationships built with industries. This may be particularly challenging for the profession of sign language interpreting because of the freelance nature of the field. Where large businesses and corporations may invest money into higher education to support specific domains, sign language interpreter organisations often affiliate more with the charity sectors and thus may not have resources to invest directly into sign language interpreter education programmes. Therefore, other programmes may have more opportunities to

expand and grow due to external investments than do sign language interpreter education programmes.

Yet, even without monetary contributions, it remains imperative for associations of sign language interpreters to collaborate more directly with both higher education institutions and governments where they can more clearly outline expected competencies and qualifications that practicing interpreters need to acquire prior to professional practice. In some cases, professional and educational domains are already clearly interconnected and have well-defined pathways that develop students personally and professionally as part of their higher education trajectory. For example, if one wants to become a medical doctor, she first must obtain undergraduate education, where no one expects her to practice as a medical professional upon graduation. She will then continue into postgraduate studies, which is followed by further training in the form of supervised residency. Such pathways are set to safeguard the standard of care and services. This is unlike the process of becoming a sign language interpreter, and in many cases due to the slow professionalisation of sign language interpreting (see: Chapter 1, section 1.2), there are not always clear established pathways to follow. Currently, students are graduating from a variety of programme types with different durations in different countries with different legal requirements for professional practice. Regardless if they are two year vocational programmes or four year undergraduate degrees, stakeholders continue to have unmet expectations when students graduate with inconsistent skill sets and are often not ready to work (see: Chapter 1), which suggests, in many cases educational degrees are not serving as a safeguarding system as they do in other professional domains.

This study highlights the landscape of sign language interpreter education situated in the context of higher education. Therefore, educators in sign language interpreting programmes work under the difficult conditions influenced by neoliberalism. As described in Chapter 2 (section 2.4) neoliberalism has in many cases forced educators to do more with less. Unfortunately, challenges caused by neoliberalism have generally worsened over the last thirty years and therefore I do not anticipate conditions to improve any time soon. SLIEs in this study face many demands and have limited resources, experiences that resonate with the notion of educators working under the confines of neoliberalism. One of the consequences of such experiences as perceived by many of the SLIEs in this study is that their programmes are not fully equipped to foster the development of work ready interpreters who can meet the

societal expectations of graduates from sign language interpreter education programmes. Therefore, either key stakeholders of sign language interpreter education programmes need to alter their expectations as to what the purpose of interpreter education is, or increase their involvement with the educational processes; as without additional support programmes will not improve.

In relation to the former, if the purpose of sign language interpreter education is to develop productive members of society, who are capable of engaging in higher order thinking skills, and display some *basic* linguistic and interpreting competencies, then the profession itself needs to be better prepared to develop graduates prior to formally entering professional practice (Dean and Pollard 2009; Hetherington 2012). Alternatively, if the purpose of sign language interpreter education is the former, *as well* as having graduates able to *effectively* facilitate linguistic and cultural exchanges between people as professional interpreters, then the educational-professional trajectory needs improvement. Similar to the educational path of the medical doctor previously described, upon graduation of an undergraduate degree, students should be expected to undergo further years of educational training, followed by formal supervision linking theory to practice. However, in many cases these pathways do not yet exist for sign language interpreter education, and without taking the opportunity to further discuss and clarify the purposes of higher education, specifically to sign language interpreter education, it will be difficult to make formal systematic changes especially under the confines of neoliberalism.

Consequences of neoliberalism and marketisation on the higher education system have been discussed in the literature and were described in (Chapter 2, sections 2.4 and 2.5). However, this body of literature does not often look at how the impacts of neoliberalism and marketisation of higher education have extended beyond students, teachers and employers. Chapter 1 specifically notes that the provision of unqualified sign language interpreters has an impact on deaf people accessing information across mainstream society, which perpetuates the marginalisation of deaf people as a cultural/linguistic minority. Further, as deaf people historically trained and vetted who would be their interpreters, when sign language interpreters began to professionalise, the education and training shifted into the higher education institution. Deaf people have thereby entrusted the higher education system in fostering students' knowledge, skills and abilities to work as professional interpreters in their schools, businesses, health care settings, and every other aspect of public and private

life. Yet, the RWG continues to exist, and the shortage of qualified sign language interpreters remains. The experiences reported by the SLIEs in this study are clear examples of how neoliberalism and marketisation affects their working environment, and they see how their working conditions and the structures of their programmes make it difficult for students to master learning outcomes and develop professional readiness. Seeing as some SLIEs experienced situations where they felt pressured to pass students regardless of their competencies and many agreed that they do pass students through courses, even though they were not yet ready to advance. We now see how the consequences of such actions can have more detrimental impacts that resonate beyond academia.

This thesis lays the groundwork for expanding the scope and scale of the study of adverse effects of the neoliberalisation of higher education beyond the academic setting and into the daily lives of deaf people. In addition to contributing to the theoretical discussions of JD-R theory, the purpose of higher education and effects of neoliberalism beyond the scope of academia, this research has implications on practice, which are discussed in section 8.3.

8.3 Impact on Practice

The demands described by the SLIEs in this study about their experiences within the current constructs of higher education align with a larger body of literature that describes academic working conditions as having deteriorated for some time now, and in many cases, are unequivocally poor (see: Chapter 2, section 2.4). Therefore, even if sign language interpreter educators continue to work as hard as they do, without additional support from the profession, they may find it very difficult to mitigate the perceived negative impacts they and their programmes may have on their sign language interpreting students' learning experiences.

Bontempo and Napier (2011) draw on a large body of literature to contextualise their study by documenting the perceived knowledge, skills, and abilities interpreter practitioners and paraprofessionals must have to competently practice in the profession; and then they identified skill gaps that exist amongst interpreting practitioners in Australia. Their study provides specific domains interpreter educators should focus on when considering student development, namely sign language skills and interpreting/translating skills. Furthermore, they highlighted that practitioners with experience, also have skills gaps and have a need for "ongoing compulsory professional development and training" (Bontempo and Napier 2011,

p. 292). This infers sign language interpreter education is not the be all and end all to a competent interpreter practitioner.

As foregrounded in section 8.2, professional bodies of sign language interpreters need to take steps in collaborating directly with higher education institutions. In order for sign language interpreter educators to do their jobs effectively, they need support from the profession at large, which again highlights the interconnectedness of the profession of sign language interpreting and higher education. Due to shifts toward marketisation across higher education, business and organisations have begun to invest more time and money into educational programmes (see: Greenaway and Haynes 2003). Partnerships have allowed for higher education institutions to reconstruct how education is funded, developed, marketed, delivered and supported (Rikard 2003; Prigge and Torraco 2007). Therefore, businesses, organisations, and public authorities that use interpreting services and professional interpreting associations may need to come forward, or be approached by higher education institutions to discuss ways they can collaborate to enhance and support interpreter education. Additional support may assist sign language interpreter educators and programmes in areas such as resource development, staff professional development, or the financial remuneration for interpreters and deaf community members for their programme assistance.

It is important to develop formalised mentorship/internship/practicum opportunities that consider the needs of current students and graduates. Opportunities should be mutually beneficial and allow the practicing interpreter to engage in their own continued education throughout the process while also cultivating the skill development of students and graduates. Such initiatives are critical to interpreting students and graduates because of the freelance nature of the profession which makes it difficult for graduates to obtain the support they need within a single organisation. This is unlike other professional domains, where students graduate and enter employment within the professional organisation and are able to receive professional support from colleagues around them. However, while this collaboration may be beneficial, considering that findings in this study showed how SLIEs do not always view their local interpreting communities as supportive, such a course of action may prove challenging and need to be carefully navigated. The idea that interpreter practitioners may not have been considered a supportive body is not new, as horizontal violence exists within the profession of sign language interpreting (see: Chapter 2, section 2.3.2) (Ott 2012). This

lack of support felt by the SLIEs in this study may be a reflection of horizontal violence. Certainly, this is not to generalise that all interpreter practitioners are unsupportive to interpreter education, as there were some areas of satisfaction within this study. However, it was not a strong source of satisfaction and identified as an issue, and these experiences should be addressed, especially considering the importance of practicing interpreters directly engaging with the development of the next generation of interpreters. Without such relationships, the opportunity for knowledge exchange is limited, which stagnates the development of the profession.

Educational opportunities will not easily change without the interpreting profession itself being elevated and further professionalised. The profession of sign language interpreters as a whole requires clear standards, including increased statutory regulations for practice that interpreters are required to abide by. Only when clear structures are in place will programmes be pressured to meet external demands and strengthen their courses. Thus, findings from this research can inform professional interpreters about the realities sign language interpreter educators face, and encourage individual interpreters and professional interpreting organisations to take on a more active role in the professionalisation of the field of sign language interpreting. They can do this by way of lobbying for statutory professional standards, increasing the number of mentorship programmes for graduates and directly collaborating with sign language interpreter educators on ways to enhance the knowledge, skills and abilities for the next generation of sign language interpreters. For, as it stands, interpreter education in the context of higher education will not be able offer much more to interpreting students without a stronger voice from the profession.

As described in Chapter 1 (section 1.2), professional organisations have been instrumental in professionalising the practice of sign language interpreting. From those organisations who lobby for accessibility and the provision of sign language interpreters for deaf people (e.g. national and world associations of deaf people) to those who have become the hub for continued professional development of practicing interpreters (e.g. national/world associations of sign language interpreters), these organisations have pushed for change and in many cases been successful. However, professional organisations have not always actively lobbied to increase educational standards. These organisations have often served more as a place where sign language interpreter educators could gather to share practices and pedagogies with each other. One exception to this is the efforts of the Conference of

Interpreter Training in the U.S. who did assist in the establishment of an independent accrediting body for interpreter education, the Commission of Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE). However, accreditation is not necessarily required of all sign language interpreter education programmes in the U.S. Few independent organisations like CIT or CCIE exist in other parts of the world. Sign language interpreter educators in Europe can participate in a special interest group for trainers as part of the European Forum of Sign Language Interpreters; under the umbrella of the Australian Association of Sign Language Interpreters, the Interpreter Trainers' Network also exists to support educators, trainers and mentors of interpreter education in Australia. Similarly, there is a special interest section of the World Association of Sign Language Interpreters for those interested in interpreter training. It is through professional associations such as these that sign language interpreter educators can have a voice to bring findings from this research forward to support the sector of sign language interpreter educators and better safeguard the profession of sign language interpreters. Working in partnership with other organisations (e.g. deaf/interpreter associations), they may be able to use political and economic influence to insist upon changes to higher education that will better support educators and students in response to the marketisation of the academy.

8.4 Impact on Pedagogy

The notion that educators impact student achievement has been heavily discussed in the literature and is presented in Chapter 2 (section 2.5.4). Geringer (2003) cited Linda Darling Hammond, Professor of Education at Stanford University, who stated: "Teacher quality is the factor that matters most for student learning", while also affirming a good teacher outweighs standards, funding and even class size. However, teacher quality is often jeopardised when higher education institutions do not properly invest into the educators responsible for the teaching and learning experience.

Several key issues were identified throughout this study. First, those SLIEs holding non-permanent contracts do not feel connected to the institutions, department and programme in which they work. This disconnect is compounded by the notion many of them do not have access to course curricula which should guide their teaching. This potentially causes inconsistent course offerings, and teachers may omit and overlap content, inadvertently negatively effecting student learning. If programmes are opting to use non-permanent staff, it is imperative resources are provided to them, including the overall course curriculum so

they can ensure the effectiveness of teaching delivery. In relation to programme curricula, findings showed SLIEs report that their curricula are either non-existent, need restructuring, or when they do exist, there is not enough time to deliver them over the duration of the programme. Certainly, finding time and money to invest into redesigning curricula to include developed resources that support teaching will be difficult in the current climate of higher education; it seems like a critical step forward in streamlining course offerings to improve sign language interpreter education as a whole.

One of the major findings in this research is that while SLIEs engage in professional development opportunities, they do so at their own expense. Chapter 6 (section 6.7) describes how professional development is the way to improve teacher quality. When professional development is not a part of educators' work experiences, it shows the lack of support offered by their institution. They describe that even when educators are required to participate in professional development activities, those opportunities are not always tied to enhancing educational practice and pedagogy. This relates to arguments presented in Chapter 7 (section 7.2.6), which question the type of professional development sign language interpreter educators engage with. As it seems SLIEs are engaging with professional development that is relevant to the practice of interpreting and not so much to the pedagogical processes of teaching interpreting. Therefore, these findings urge sign language interpreter educators to be reflexive about their teaching approaches; to consider ways to engage further with teaching and learning development, and for higher education institutions to consider the importance of investing into the development of academics as educators.

Another finding is that sign language interpreter educators are not engaging in research activities. This is concerning, as not only should curricula be research based, it should be research informed and research led. Van den Bogarde (2017) argues that research should be embedded into sign language interpreter education programmes. She suggests research allows for the continuous adaptation of the curriculum, intensifies contact with deaf communities, and also strengthens contacts with professional fields of education, care and labour. Furthermore, global collaborations with sign language interpreter education programmes can be cultivated, which will ultimately strengthen programme offerings. However, if the educators are not actively engaged in research themselves, research networks will be limited, and they will not be able to effectively teach their students how to research. Van den Bogarde (2017) argues that when sign language interpreter education programmes

embed research activities into program curricula, such initiatives, even at the undergraduate level, can better foster the development of professional interpreters. She believes graduates will have attitudes that will embody improved social awareness, as well as attitudes that are inquisitive, critical, reflective and innovative, all characteristics that will ultimately help to further the development of the profession. Therefore, I join scholars such as Monikowski (2013), Winston (2013), Leeson et al. (2014), Hessmann et al. (2011) and Van den Bogarde (2017) and call for sign language interpreter educators to further engage with research in order to enhance sign language interpreter education and further develop the status of the profession of sign language interpreting.

In summary, this study has been able to depict the lives of SLIEs working under the confines of neoliberalised higher education systems and highlighted SLIEs' perspectives as to how their working conditions have influenced the RWG, which adds a new layer of complexity to the phenomenon by considering factors other than the students themselves in relation to the RWG. Moreover, not only have the findings from this study been important to consider in relation to theory practice and pedagogy, they have laid the groundwork for future research. Therefore, the following section examines ways in which key stakeholders, such as the sign language interpreter educators themselves, programme coordinators, and administration, as well as related community members such as professional sign language interpreters and deaf people can build upon these findings.

8.5 Recommendations

Drawing on the implications for theory, practice and pedagogy as presented in sections 8.2-8.4 and within Chapter 7, discussion of the findings, this section provides a number of recommendations for key stakeholders within the field of sign language interpreter education. As with all advancing educational programmes, system improvements can be made through an incremental progression of goal attainment by relying on resources such as new and trending research, advancing technology, lessons learned from experiences and input from changing markets led by future employers. When programme directors, interpreter educators, administration and management, and industry partners can come together in a collaborative manner, they can collectively ensure the long-term health for interpreter education programmes. Specific towards that goal, is the long-term health of interpreter educators who are key for any successful interpreting programme. Moreover, efforts to strengthen programmes will positively influence student learning outcomes and thus improve

the quality of sign language interpreting services for deaf people. The following section provides concrete suggestions as to how higher education institutions, sign language interpreter education programmes, professional organisations and associations, as well as industry can take steps to improve the quality of graduates and potentially reduce the impact SLIEs perceive they and their programmes have on the RWG. These recommendations have been divided into two sections, the first category being suggestions specifically for higher education institutions and programmes, and the second section to outline suggestions that require collaboration amongst sign language interpreter education programmes and external stakeholders. From these recommendations, general areas of recommended research are provided for scholars to consider when building on the findings of this research. All of these recommendations aim to improve sign language interpreter education and address SLIEs' perceptions of their individual and programme contribution to the RWG.

8.5.1 Suggestions for Higher Education Institutions and Programmes

After reflecting on the findings from this research, I believe sign language interpreter education programmes and higher education institutions can positively respond to this study by taking some key steps to internally support and improve working experiences for sign language interpreter educators, which SLIEs perceive to affect student achievement, particularly the RWG. These recommendations are outlined below:

1) Examine personal work conditions:

   Sign language interpreter educators should personally examine their working conditions in relation to their job demands, and available resources within the context of the higher education institution they work. They should also reflect on how they are feeling, particularly in regards to their overall wellbeing, and consider how such factors may be affecting their job performance as well as their students' learning experiences. Through this reflective process, sign language interpreter educators will develop an increased awareness of their situations. A heightened level awareness can serve as a foundation for determining what personal resources, or controls, they have which can help them better navigate the realities of their working lives.

2) Conduct a programme needs assessment:

   Building upon the previous recommendation, sign language interpreter educators can work together within their programmes to identify how factors relating to job

demands and job resources (agreed upon by the team) are affecting them as a whole and conduct a programme needs assessment to recognise their particularities about their programme. This systematic process for determining and addressing needs between the current conditions and desired conditions (job demands and job resources) provides the roadmap for implementing a programme improvement plan.

3) Clarify programme outcomes in regard to readiness of graduates:

   Administrators and educators within higher education institutions need to openly discuss the nature of course offerings in relation to both programme and institutional missions. Based on these conversations, clear and realistic programme outcomes need to be identified and appropriately advertised so prospective students, employers, practicing interpreters, and end consumers understand the realities of interpreter programmes and student learning outcomes and thus avoid developing misaligned expectations. As programmes improve and standards increase, these outcomes can be adjusted upward.

4) Conduct a curriculum review:

   Sign language interpreter education programmes need to conduct a curriculum review. Depending upon educational the qualifications of educators, programmes may need to seek external consultation to ensure course offerings are based on current and relevant research. It may be efficient to utilise pre-existing curriculum documents (e.g. EFSLI's learning outcomes) as a reference point and foundation for further developments (EFSLI 2013). Starting with an impetus for review, this process considers the buy in for potential change, identification of desired outcomes, as would have been identified in the needs assessment, comparisons of desired and current state, findings such as gaps, overlaps and needs leading to informed decisions about courses, curriculum and programme outcomes.

   Once completed, programme curriculum must be uniformly provided to all educators who are involved in programme management and course delivery.

   Additionally, a plan and structure needs to be developed in order to assess success and revision. After a curriculum review is complete and is implemented, it is important to gauge success or a need for further revision.

5) Support and fund a defined professional development plan:

   As identified in the research, SLIEs regularly find themselves self-funding and self-allocating personal time to attend professional development. If sign language interpreter educators are going to be successful in the classroom, support for professional development that enhances the delivery of courses using current and research led teaching practices that are innovative and pedagogically sound must be implemented.

   A fully supported professional development plan will also allow for sign language interpreter educators to obtain academic qualification that are on par with academics across other disciplines. It should be noted that this recommendation is contingent upon the professionalisation of the field of sign language interpreting, and will be difficult to change until professional standards increase. However, the long term goal for higher education institutions should be to hire only educators who hold appropriate academic qualifications.

6) Increase research opportunities:

   The research indicated that very few SLIEs are provided time or are supported in formal research. In order for programmes to improve, and to ensure they are embedded with the most recent advancements in the field of sign language interpreting and teaching practices for interpreter education, educators need to be allocated time to engage in research which can then be applied to their teaching practice.

7) Develop accurately represented workload allocation models:

   This research showed SLIEs are working hours beyond what they are compensated. It also shows that many of them are spending much of their time in tasks related to student assessment and feedback processes. While some of this may be reduced through the curriculum review process, it is recommended higher education institutions consider workload allocation models to be designed in respect to programme needs which will better support the educator and the student learning experience.

8) Define the community of practice:

   Findings in this study revealed how SLIEs often do not feel supported by internal and external stakeholders to the profession of sign language interpreting, particularly sign language interpreter practitioners. Therefore, a community of practice needs to be developed to allow for the interpreter programme to improve such relationships. Participants within a community of practice, who have a common goal of gaining knowledge related to a specific field strengthens the learning process. By defining the individuals and organisations that should be part of the interpreter education community of practice ensures that the programme can begin to engage with key stakeholders and will not inadvertently miss new opportunities for programme growth and development.

9) Institutional review of available resources and their allocation:

   Considering how higher education institutions have been reported to invest heavily in administration, it is recommended that institutions at large, schools, and departments conduct a review of available resources and how they being allocated. A review of such type can be the first step to ensure resources are being distributed appropriately and sufficiently better supporting research and teaching demands and improving the student learning experience.

10) Identify avenues to strategic resources:

    Sign language interpreters are expected to practice in various work settings, (e.g. industry, organisations and public entities). In response to the marketisation of higher education, sign language interpreter education programmes need to increase their efforts to identify key entities that use sign language services in the delivery of their products and services. By identifying potential opportunities for collaboration, sign language interpreter education programmes will be better situated to meet industry needs while gaining various types of support (e.g. financial) that might derive from these new partnerships.

8.5.2 Suggestions requiring collaborative efforts

In addition to the higher education institution and interpreter education programme taking internal steps towards improving the working conditions of sign language interpreters, the

following recommendations are presented to encourage collaboration amongst stakeholders who have the ability to influence wider professional and systematic changes.

1) Formalise or strengthen a professional body for sign language interpreter educators:

   Although there are a number of different associations for sign language interpreters to join, it is evident that one unifying voice of action needs to be developed and to support various interpreting education programmes. Recalling the old adages *knowledge is powe*r and *there is strength in numbers*, real standardised programme improvement can only be achieved by having a unified voice. An organisation designed to support the efforts of sign language interpreter educators and their programmes can bring significant improvement on the legislative front while at the same time broadening knowledge, enhancing networks, increasing leadership opportunities and developing information sharing resources. Additionally, this professional body for sign language interpreter educators can become a hub to foster the development of sign language interpreter educators' research skills and to support the undertaking of research specifically aiming to enhance teaching and learning experiences in the context of sign language interpreter education.

2) Increase awareness for key decision makers:

   Many key decision makers lack complete understanding on the consequences and liabilities of how inadequate sign language interpreter training negatively affects deaf people's access to mainstream society. Therefore, it is recommended that professional organisations and associations, who represent deaf people and interpreter practitioners and interpreter educators, work with sign language interpreter educators and programmes, to implement outreach opportunities, which can build relationships with key decision makers and in turn, strengthen interpreter education programmes.

3) Identify and develop standards for practice:

   Currently clear and consistent standards of qualification for working as a sign language interpreter are lacking. Terms such as graduate, certified, experienced or qualified all have a different context depending on the hiring authority or organisations. These various standards need to be studied and recommendations need to be developed for a standardised working competency system.

Thus, a collaborative effort of research needs to be undertaken to establish what an education pathway for a future sign language interpreter would look like. This type of research would further enhance the credibility of the sign language interpreting field. An example of such pathways to explore are routes used to become a doctor or a nurse, as there are set parameters with education, testing, field internships, supervised work opportunities and various preceptor programs. Additionally, upon completion of such educational pathway, it must be identified whether or not licensure for practice should also be required. From that point, such a license should be developed and standardised.

4) Legislate for a standards of practice:

It is believed that one way the standard of sign language interpreter education can improve, and educators will gain additional access to gain additional resources is when societal expectations of professional sign language interpreters match political and legislative expectations. Therefore, through collaborative efforts, higher education institutions, deaf and interpreting organisations and associations need to reach policy makers to develop statutory regulations. These regulations can be used to enforce the educational and professional trajectory for those wishing to practice as professional interpreters. Such policies must consider the ways in which regulations are monitored, policed and supported. Once these are in place, sign language interpreter education programmes and other key stakeholders will be better situated to secure the long-term viability of their programs.

5) Advocate for strategic resources:

Higher education institutions must engage with other organisations to lobby public authorities to financially invest into the education and training of sign language interpreters. The current economic climate of higher education institutions are impeding sign language interpreter education programmes to deliver course offerings without essential resources. By stressing the shortage of qualified sign language interpreting services, and identifying potential legislation that could serve as a justification, sign language interpreter education programmes may be able to obtain needed funds that improve their programmes.

6) Build the community of practice:

   Once key stakeholders are identified as part of a community of practice, it will be important for sign language interpreter educators to work with such stakeholders to improve the support in place for students' transition from their studies into the professional world. It is recommended that this community of practice be based within a professional sign language interpreter association or organisation. These associations and organisations can begin to take an active role in supporting new interpreters even during their student years (e.g. student member rates, mentorship opportunities, giving guest talks and lectures about professional membership). If a network within such professional associations and organisations is established to introduce students to other professional interpreters and agencies, it will both facilitate students' efforts to build strong networks more quickly and potentially ensure a smoother and more supported transition into the workforce.

7) Develop research projects with direct stakeholder involvement:

   Considering higher education institutions have the opportunity and means to apply for external funding to undertake original high impact research, it is recommended that projects be strategically designed to involve the participation of stakeholders. This academic-stakeholder partnership can then lead to strengthening the connection between higher education institutions and public bodies, thereby facilitating students' transition into the workplace by providing opportunities as internships, shadowing and supervision. An example of such an initiative aligning with the findings from this thesis is the Promoting Equal Access to Services (PEAS) project, through which the Scottish Government has funded Heriot-Watt University in partnership with Police Scotland and the NHS Greater Glasgow Clyde to create paid and closely-supervised internships for up to four newly registered, qualified interpreters. Such partnerships can more directly sign language interpreter education learning outcomes with the demands and environment of professional contexts.

While the implementation of these recommendations may vary from country to country, the general sense that the field of sign language interpreting needs to professionalise further in order to better support sign language interpreter education is clear. Hopefully, when sign language interpreting becomes considered a full profession, and clear educational and professional pathways are developed and implemented, higher education institutions will be

able to ensure course offerings align with community needs and that graduates are better able to provide a standard of interpreting services to deaf people.

8.5.3 Recommendations for future research

From a pragmatic perspective, it is understood that an important part of research is to identify solutions to problems (Bacon 2012). Therefore, in addition to the practical recommendations provided in sections 8.5.1 and 8.5.2, there are other ways scholars can build upon these findings by way of future research.

When this study was first designed, it set out to understand the general experiences of sign language interpreter educators and how their experiences are perceived as factors contributing to the RWG or not. It is now important to identify ways to improve such experiences for both the educators and learners. This study cast a wide net in identifying the job demands and job resources interpreter educators face, examining their overall wellbeing and seeking to explore the perspectives sign language interpreter educators have on how these factors may impact student learning processes. JD-R theory itself is used to understand *what* is occurring. While some preliminary conclusions were drawn as to why certain phenomena were occurring, scholars may consider applying other frameworks as suggested by Schaufeli and Taris (2014) to better understand the why. For example, by using theories on identity and or self-efficacy, researchers can explore the personal and professional responsibility SLIEs exhibit in relation to how they manage their workload demands

Additional research around specific themes identified in this study is also recommended. This would include more detailed analyses of how specific job demands, specific job resources, and the relationships between them impact sign language interpreter educators and their students. For example, this study identified assessment processes was one of the most demanding workload job demand tasks for SLIEs. Therefore, our understanding of assessment procedures and sign language interpreter educators approach to assessment practices could be informed and strengthened by research quantifying such dimension as: 1) how much time sign language interpreter educators are spending on assessing and marking activities; 2) what/how they deliver feedback to students; 3) what resources they have access to support them in this task; and 4) what type of feedback students may find the most beneficial. Additionally, as the sample size comprised a majority of participants from the U.S., further comparative studies could be undertaken to explore in depth how these factors may affect interpreter education outside of the U.S.

Moreover, some literature exists on perceptions of sign language interpreter education programme duration (see: Chapter 1). This study indicated SLIEs are finding it difficult to teach their current curricula within the current timeframe of their programme. Additionally, while some SLIEs felt they could teach their curriculum in the duration of the programme, they also perceived the curriculum itself as weak, and needing to be revaluated. Therefore, as also suggested by Winston (2013), evidence based curricula need to be developed and implemented. Thus, formal research on what constitutes an effective interpreting curriculum and how much time is recommended for it to be achieved is needed. This information can then be distributed to higher education institutions, the profession of interpreting and employers of sign language interpreters can then collaborate on new innovative ways to deliver interpreter education.

This study also provides the case for future researchers who are interested in interpreter education and interpreter pedagogy to focus attention on improving interpreter education, particularly the teaching and learning experiences. For example, while this study found many of the participating SLIEs are engaged with and personally funding their professional development, it was less clear as to what type of professional development they are engaged in. Considering the notion that professional sign language interpreter educators are often professional interpreters who are required to continue to develop their selves within the profession, it is likely that many of them are engaged in practices that develop them as an interpreter rather than an educator. Thus, one way further research can support this is to identify what type of professional development sign language interpreter educators are engaged in (e.g. interpreter skill development vs. educator skill development). By understanding what type of professional development sign language interpreter educators are lacking, training opportunities specifically designed for sign language interpreter educators that will help them improve their teaching practices can be developed.

Webb and Napier (2015) reported programmes that have been mapped to external entities face additional restrictions that negatively impact SLIEs teaching and student learning practices. However, when explored in Phase 2 of this study, results were considered inconclusive (see: Chapter 4, section 4.4.4.) It seems many SLIEs were unsure if their programmes were mapped to an external body. Therefore, an area for future research is to explore programmes that do in fact have mapped curricula to determine the ways in which such structures are either a help or a hindrance.

One final issue identified in this study was the limited participation from deaf sign language interpreter educators. Although the survey was provided in English, considering English is the primary language of those working within academia, there were attempts to ensure deaf sign language interpreter educators were included in the call for participation in this research by producing videos about the study in ASL, BSL and International Sign. The limited participation by deaf people raises questions as to whether or not deaf people within interpreter education programmes identify as interpreter educators. If they do not, it may explain why there was a lack of participation from deaf interpreter educators in this research. Such research may also reveal other difficult dynamics between hearing and deaf educators which may too have an impact on the student learning experience.

In summary, this section has provided recommendations directly to sign language interpreter education programmes, higher education institutions and key stakeholders on ways in which they can work towards improving the conditions of sign language interpreter education for educators, students and eventually the quality of the provision of sign language interpreters. Additionally, several areas that may be of interest for future scholarly research have been presented. I hope that this research serves as a springboard for future studies that further enhance our understanding of the ways sign language interpreter educators and their programmes may contribute to the RWG. For, having such research available will help us work toward improving student learning experience, the skills of graduates as well as the overall quality of services they provide to deaf people in society.

8.6 Final Remarks

It has been a goal of this research to stimulate thought and dialogue that will create action to enhance interpreter education opportunities, and ultimately increase the quality of graduates working within the field. Further, I recognise changes in interpreter education cannot and will not happen overnight, and therefore I hope while we work towards change, those stakeholders to the profession of sign language interpreting and sign language interpreter education develop an increased understanding of the experiences faced by sign language interpreter educators. With this new awareness, I have confidence that key stakeholders within the sign language interpreting profession will become more sympathetic and will assist in collaboratively identifying methods in which they can offer their support to the educators, programmes and to the students upon graduation.

Appendix A-Scoping Study Protocol

The interviewer turns on the recording device. Interviewer introduces the name, country and interview mode on the specific date for transcription purposes. The interviewer informs the interviewee about taking notes and seeks verbal consent.

This is an interview with (name) from (country) and we are conducting an interview via (Skype, Google Hangout, Face-Time, Face-to-Face) on (date).

Thank you again for your participation. Do you mind if I take some notes during the interview?

Do you have any questions?

Let's begin.

1) Do you believe educators have an impact on student's future success? If yes, how so?
2) Outside of the skills of the students, what do you feel are the main contributing factors to student outcomes and their job performance upon graduation? Can you talk a little bit about this?
3) Do you believe you have high job demand?
4) Do you have resources to help off-set the high job demand? If so, what are they?
5) What resources do you think you would need to off-set the high job demand?
6) What potential resources do you need which could facilitate the achievement of improved student outcomes and successful job performance upon graduation?
7) Can you comment on any factors that might impact your ability to prepare students for the workforce?

Additional prompts:

- Are there any environmental factors?
- Are there any policy factors?
- Are there any interpersonal factors?
- Are there any intrapersonal factors?

8) How do you believe these factors that you experience might impact student outcomes?
9) Do you see these factors influencing your decision-making in relation to teaching and student assessment? If so, how?

10) Have any of the factors you have just shared with me forced you into uncomfortable positions? If so, can elaborate?
11) Have you ever felt pressured to pass students even though you feel they are not ready to advance? If so, can you share examples/experiences of what you have done and why?
12) Have you experienced burnout? What lead to this? How did it impact you etc.?
13) How are financial resources allocated to the program you work in?
14) Can you explain a bit about the experience required for potential teaching staff when hiring?
15) How is the program's performance measured and evaluated?
16) How is individual teaching performance measured and evaluated?
17) Do you believe you have high job demand?
18) Do you have resources to help off-set the high job demand? If so, what are they?
19) What resources do you think you would need to off-set the high job demand?
20) . What potential resources do you need which could facilitate the achievement of improved student outcomes and successful job performance upon graduation?

Appendix B-Scoping Study Background Questionnaire

Participant Information

Name: Gender:

Age: Ethnicity

Country/State/City you currently work:

Education:

Degree	Major	Minor
Associates ☐	_____	_____
Bachelors ☐	_____	_____
Masters ☐	_____	_____

Research Focus

Doctoral ☐ _____

How long have you been an Interpreter Educator?

Years:

0-5 ☐

6-10 ☐

11-15 ☐

16-20 ☐

21 + ☐

How long have you been in your current position?

Years:

0-5 ☐

6-10 ☐

11-15 ☐

16-20 ☐

21 + ☐

How did you become involved in Interpreter Education?

Do you have formal education/training in adult education?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, please describe:

Are you certified as a sign language interpreter by a recognized certification body?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, list here:

Are you currently practicing as a sign language interpreter?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Capacity	√	**Amount**	√
Freelance	☐	Full-Time	☐
Staff (with agency)	☐	Part-Time	☐
College/University	☐	Whenever I am available	☐
K-12	☐		

Program Questions:

Curriculum:

How was the curriculum developed?

Faculty & Staff

How many of the following work in the Interpreter Education program you coordinate?

Position	Total	Deaf	Hearing
Full Time Tenured Faculty			
Full Time Tenure Track Faculty			
Full Time non-Tenure Track Faculty			
Part Time Faculty			
Contingent/Adjunct Faculty			

Does the program have an effective number of teaching faculties in the program?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Comments:

Faculty Education Levels

Degree	Total	Deaf	Hearing
Associates			
Bachelor			
Masters			
Doctoral			

How many students are currently enrolled in interpreter education program?

Are there required student numbers to run a course?

Yes ☐ No ☐ If so, how many? _____

Appendix C-Survey Instrument JDRS-IE

My name is Stacey Webb. I am a sign language interpreter educator currently conducting doctoral research at Heriot-Watt University in Edinburgh, Scotland. I am very interested in *your* experiences as a sign language interpreter educator, therefore this research aims to better understand your job-demands and job-resources and how you perceive such factors to influence your job performance and student learning outcomes.

This questionnaire will take approximately 45-minutes of your time, however you will be able to stop and start this survey at any time (be sure to click, 'finish later' to save your progress). *Optional* spaces are available to allow you to elaborate on questions and fully share and explain your experiences. This information will be used to support and better understand the data. *The survey will close on April 18, 2015. (Original date was April 6th it has been extended)*

If you have any questions on this survey please do not hesitate to contact me. Although this survey is in English, if you would like to see a specific question clarified through International Sign Language, American Sign Language or British Sign Language, I am happy to provide that to you. Additionally, due to the focus of the questionnaire on job-demands, you may experience feelings of frustration or stress. If this is the case and you are interested in debriefing with me, please send me an email and we will arrange to do so.

At the end of this survey, you will be asked if you are willing to participate in a follow up questionnaire including the topics of burnout and work engagement. Completing this will take approximately 30 minutes of your time. If you are willing to participate in this piece of the research as well, you will need to create an identifier unique to you that includes a four-digit number, your favourite colour and the last two letters of your surname (e.g. 1984PurpleBB). You will be asked for this identifier on the next questionnaire, as it will aid in the analysis process for cross-referencing purposes.

As a fellow sign language interpreter and interpreter educator, I thank you so much for investing your time to this research by completing the questionnaire. If you are interested in receiving results of this research and information on future publications and dissemination events, please send me an email. As a thank you, please include your email address at the end of this survey to be included in a drawing to receive a £100.00 gift voucher to Amazon. Your email address will be separated from the survey data to ensure it remains anonymous.

Thank you,

Stacey Webb

sw288@hw.ac.uk

To see these messages in sign language click on your preferred language below

American Sign Language

British Sign Language

International Sign

All data collected in this survey will be held anonymously and securely. When you are asked for an email address to participate in the follow up survey or to enrol in the draw for the £100.00 voucher to Amazon your email will be removed from the data to preserve anonymity. Cookies, personal data stored by your Web browser, are not used in this survey. The Heriot-Watt University Ethics Committee has approved this questionnaire. Any questions re: this survey can be sent to Stacey Webb at sw288@hw.ac.uk

By clicking 'next' I am agreeing to participate in this questionnaire. My final submission of this questionnaire indicates:

- I understand the general aim of the research.
- I understand the researcher is taking every precaution to ensure my anonymity.
- My responses will be used for data analysis and results will be incorporated into future publications and presentations.
- I know that if I have any questions, I can contact the researcher directly at sw288@hw.ac.uk

Demographics

The following section aims to collect information on you as an educator, the higher education institution and programme in which you work.

No.	Question	Selection
1	Which country do you work in?	Australia Canada United Kingdom United States of America Other
1a	If you selected other, please specify	
2	What gender do you identify with?	Male Female Transgender Other Preferred Identifier
2a	How do you identify yourself?	Deaf Hard of Hearing Hearing Other preferred identity.
2b	If you selected other, please specify	
3	What types of post-secondary educational degrees or qualifications do you hold? (Check all that apply)	Doctorate Masters Bachelors Associates Diploma Certificate None Other
3a	If you selected Other, please specify:	
4	Please list the names and titles of the post-secondary education degrees or qualifications you hold.	
5	How many years of professional teaching experience do you have?	0 1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21+

No.	Question	Selection
6	Are you a sign language interpreter practitioner?	Yes No
6a	Are you certified as a sign language interpreter by a professional organisation?	Yes No
7	What is your professional background?	Deaf Studies Interpreting Linguistics Sign Language Teaching Other
7a	If you selected other, please specify	
8	What is the type of higher education institution you work in?	College Community College Further Education Technical University Vocational Other
8a	If you selected other, please specify	
9	Which of the following apply to your current position? Mark all that apply	Full Time Part Time Contract/Casual/Adjunct Coordinator Teacher Researcher Other
9a	If you selected other, please specify	
10	What is the name of the program/qualification you teach (e.g. Undergraduate Bachelor of Arts in Sign Language Interpreting Studies or Diploma in Sign Language Interpreting)	
11	What type of classes do you typically teach? (Mark all that apply)	Culture/History Interpreting Linguistics Professional Ethics Sign Language Transliterating Translation Other
11a	If you selected Other, please specify:	

No.	Question	Selection
12	The program is offered in which of the following learning environments?	Only on campus Only on online Blended (both on campus and online) Other
12a	If you selected other, please specify	
13	Which department is the sign language interpreter education programme you teach housed in? (E.g. Communication, Communication Disorders, Deaf Studies, Education, Interpreting/Translation, Languages etc.)	
14	Is the sign language interpreter education programme mapped to an external accreditation process where students who graduate can work upon graduation without any additional testing? (e.g. registered, qualified)	Yes No Not Sure Other
14a	If you selected other, please specify	

Coordinators

If you are a coordinator or work in the role of a coordinator, please answer the following questions. If you are not a coordinator or serving in the role of a coordinator, please move on to question number 25.

No.	Question	Selection
15	How many students are enrolled in the sign language interpreter education programme you teach?	1-15 16-30 31-45 46-60 61-75 76-90 91-105 106-120 121-135 136-150 151-165 166+
16	How many members of teaching staff does the sign language interpreter education programme employ?	0-2 3-6 6-9 10-13 14+
17	How many permanent full-time staff teach in the sign language interpreter education programme?	3-6 7-9 10-13 14+
18	How many teaching hours are not covered by permanent full-time teaching staff in one academic year?	

No.	Question	Selection
18a	Who covers those teaching hours?	PhD Students Contract/Casual/Contingent/Adjunct Unfilled Other
18b	If you selected Other, please specify.	
19	In the last year how many people were employed to cover teaching hours not filled by full-time teaching staff?	0 1-3 4-6 7-9 10-12 13+ I am not sure
20	How long should it take for a full-time student to complete the qualification/programme?	Less than 1 year 1 year 18 months 2 years 3 years 4 years Other
20a	If you selected other, please specify	
21	Which academic calendar do you follow?	Semester Trimester Quarter Other
21a	If you selected other, please specify	
22	How many weeks are in one semester or term?	1-3 4-6 7-9

No.	Question	Selection
		10-12 13-15 16+ Other
22a	If you selected other, please specify	
23	How many total teacher-student contact hours are included in the programme?	
24	How many self-study hours are students expected to complete total in the programme?	

Perceptions: Job Demands & Job Resources

The following sections explore how you view your current working experiences in relation to job demands and job resources; and how you perceive your job performance as influencing student learning outcomes.

Please respond to the following statements regarding your perceptions of your job-demands and job-resources. Select if you strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree or strongly disagree.

Please respond to the statements by selecting Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Disagree or Strongly Disagree.

25.1a I effectively manage my work demands.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.2a My workload negatively impacts the quality and relevance of the curriculum.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.3a Marking in sign language interpreter education requires more of my time than of my colleagues in other disciplines.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.4a I have enough contact hours with students to cover course curriculum.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.5a	Strongly	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly

I feel a sense of personal responsibility in my job to serve my students well.	Agree		Agree nor Disagree		Disagree
25.6a I feel pressured from the deaf community regarding how my students perform upon graduation.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.7a I work more hours than I am compensated for.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.8a I feel pressure to pass students to meet student number requirements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.9a Failing students requires me to do more work than if they pass.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.10a My job expects me to research and publish.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.11a I have time to meet with students 1:1 if they need.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.12a I have plenty of classroom materials to choose from.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.13a I stay up to date on current literature and best practices for teaching sign language interpreting students.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.14a The reason I work so many hours is because of the pressure I put on myself to do well.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.15a I believe my reputation in the Deaf Community is tied to my students' performance upon graduation.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.16a The curriculum I follow is up to date.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.17a I have time to collaborate with my colleagues.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.18a My program receives the same amount of funding as other comparable disciplines.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

25.19a I have time to create new and revamp old lesson plans.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.20a The decision to pass or fail borderline students is difficult to make.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.21a I have sufficient resources and manage my job demands effectively.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.22a I have time to strengthen and improve curriculum when needed.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.23a The Higher Education Institution I work pays for me to attend conferences.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.24a I receive feedback through formal evaluation/appraisals.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.25a I have time to research, publish and disseminate information to wider.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.26a I feel my work life and personal life are well balanced	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.27a The sign language interpreter education programme I work in has sufficient numbers of staff to share workload responsibilities.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.28a I have time to invest into professional development activities.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.29a I feel supported in the workplace.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.30a My colleagues serve as a resource and I utilize them to improve my teaching.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.31a In the last 6 months I have requested funds for resources and have been denied.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.32a I believe I have all the resources I need to be an effective teacher.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

25.33a Student numbers are tied to how much money our program/department receives.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.34a We have more full-time educators than those on contracts or working part-time.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.35a Feedback I receive from the administration about my job performance is beneficial.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.36a The grading structure set by the HEI I work at is appropriate for sign language interpreter education.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.37a I can teach everything I need to teach in the duration of the programme.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.38a My students' skills and abilities upon graduation can negatively affect my reputation as a professional (e.g. educator, interpreter) within the deaf community.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.39a I believe I have the skill sets to be an effective teacher.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.40a My personal life has interfered with my professional life.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.41a Following policies established by the Higher Education Institution I work is stressful.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.42a Classes always run even when enrolment is down.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.43a Expectations from Sign language interpreters (not affiliated with the sign language interpreter education program) creates an additional layer of pressure for me.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.44a Time is my most valuable resource.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

25.45a My job demands are high.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.46a My students receive individual feedback on assignments.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.47a I reduce student workload to align with my own.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.48a I read journal articles and publications around spoken and sign language interpreter education.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.49a When I make requests for funding resources, my requests are granted.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.50a Student numbers is a concern of my administration.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.51a My colleagues and I collaborate.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.52a My job resources are low.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
25.52b I know what my colleagues are teaching in their classes.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Perceptions: Student Learning Outcomes

Please respond to the following statements regarding your perceptions on how your job demands and job resources may affect your job performance, overall program performance in relation to student learning outcomes.

26. Please respond to the following statements if you strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree.

26.1a Student learning suffers because of the many demands I face.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.2a My workload does not affect student-learning outcomes.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

26.3a The feedback my students receive from instructors is instrumental to their learning and skill development.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.4a Program duration is satisfactory for students to develop essential knowledge, skills and abilities to work as sign language interpreters upon graduation.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.5a I have passed borderline students who should have been held back.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.6a The grading policy established by the higher education institution fits well with the needs of our program.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.7a My students know I am stressed.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.8a I provide my students with the most current information regarding the sign language interpreting profession.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.9a The Higher Education System has no influence over student learning outcomes.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.10a Our program needs restructuring to improve student learning outcomes.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.11a I lack resources, because of this, my performance suffers, and student learning is affected.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.12a The Higher Education Institution I work at is willing to "go the distance" to make sure students are prepared.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.13a We offer extra supports to students to supplement their classroom learning (e.g. tutoring, lab filled with resources etc.).	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

26.14a Although my job demands are high, I have sufficient resources to manage such demands.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.15a We have enough staff to meet student needs.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.16a My involvement with a variety of committees at the higher education institution I work has made a difference in student learning outcomes.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.17a My personal life impacts my job performance.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.18a My colleagues and I collaborate our lesson plans to maximize student success.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.19a My workload impacts the quality and relevance of teaching delivery.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.20a I believe our program meets all of our student’s needs.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.21a I believe the majority of students are 'ready to work' upon graduation.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.22a Student learning is my primary responsibility.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.23a My job performance is consistent throughout each semester.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.24a My job performance impacts student-learning outcomes.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.25a I believe students in our program are 'safe to practice' upon graduation.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.26a Research conducted in my institution directly improves sign	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

language interpreter education and thus makes a difference in student learning outcomes.					
26.27a I often think that if I had more resources students graduating our program would have better skill sets.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.28a A majority of teaching staff has office hours to work with students outside teaching hours and this has positive impact on student learning outcomes.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.29a All of the content required by the external body is well suited for students becoming sign language interpreters.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.30a Teaching staff contributes to student readiness.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.31a Program resources contribute to student readiness.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.32a Students lack skills because the program is too short.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.33a The administration directly or indirectly pressures me to pass students regardless of competency.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.34a The higher education institution I work is doing a good job in preparing students to work as interpreters	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.35a I often think student learning outcomes would improve if my hands were not always tied.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.36a Program structure contributes to student readiness.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26.37a I believe my job performance is beyond satisfactory.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

26.38a Student learning suffers because of my high job demand and low resources.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Job Demands

The following section aims to explore the job-demands you face in your current position. Job-demands are those "physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive or emotional) effort or skills and therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs." Bakker and Demerouti (2007, p. 312).

Each category has an optional open comment box where you can elaborate as much or as little as you like to further explain your experience with the identified job-demand category. As you work through this section of the survey you may want to identify other job-demands. If this is the case, please indicate them in the open comment boxes.

27. 5 major job-demand categories have been identified for sign language interpreter educators. Please rank the following job-demand categories from most demanding (1) to least demanding (5). If you feel a category is equally demanding you may rank it equally. If you do not perceive this category as a job demand, please select N/A.

- Expectations (defined as the expectations you have of yourself or others have on you.
- External (defined as the demands placed on you by stakeholders outside the higher education institution such as the deaf community, interpreting community or other professional organizations).
- Higher education institution constraints (defined as the organizational structures and policies that frame the work environment).
- Personal (defined as the commitments you have outside of work).
- Workload (defined as the specific job tasks you manage on a day-to-day basis.

27a Please share any comments you have regarding your experiences with the identified job-demand categories.

Job Demand Categories

The job-demand categories have been broken down into individual job-demands. Within each category, please rate the job-demands from most demanding (1) to least demanding (>1). Please note although ranking is encouraged, if you perceive job-demands being equally demanding you do have the option to rank them equally; you may assign the same weight to two or more items. If there is an additional sub-category that you feel would fit within the major job demand category please identify it and include it in the ranking. If you opt to do this, please elaborate what this is in the comment box provided.

No.	Question	Selection
28	Rank Job Demand Category: Expectations (defined as Expectations placed on the educator internally or externally regarding work). Rank each item from most demanding (1) to least demanding (5). If you include 'other' you will rank from most demanding (1) to least demanding (6) and identify the other in the box below. If you feel any item holds equal weight you can assign them the same value. Select N/A if the job demand is not applicable to you.	Administrative Collegial External Internal Students Other
28a	Please share any comments regarding the job-demand category 'expectations' including any examples from your experiences with administration, colleagues, external or internal sources, students or other forms of expectations.	
29	Rank Job Demand Category: External (defined as demands placed on you by stakeholders outside the HEI such as the deaf community, interpreting community or other professional organizations). Rank each item from most demanding (1) to least demanding (3). If you include 'other' you will rank from most demanding (1) to least demanding (4) and identify the other in the box below. If you feel any item holds equal weight you can assign them the same value. Select N/A if the job demand is not applicable to you.	Deaf Community Interpreting Community Profession Other
29a	Please share any comments you have regarding the 'external' job-demand category and your experiences with stakeholders outside the higher education institution.	
30	Rank Job-Demand Category: Higher education institution constraints (defined as the organizational structures and policies that frame the work environment). Rank each item from most demanding (1) to least demanding (6). If you include 'other' you will rank from most demanding (1) to least demanding (7) and identify the other in the box below. If you feel any item holds equal weight you can assign them the same value. Select N/A if the job demand is not applicable to you.	Grading Structure Organizational Structure Policy Programme Duration Student Contact Hours Student Numbers
30a	Please share your experiences regarding the job-demand category 'higher education institution constraints'.	
31	Rank Job-Demand Category: Personal (defined as the commitments you have outside of work). Rank each item from	Educational Pursuits

No.	Question	Selection
	most demanding (1) to least demanding (3). If you include 'other' you will rank from most demanding (1) to least demanding (4) and identify the other in the box below. If you feel any item holds equal weight you can assign them the same value. Select N/A if the job demand is not applicable to you.	Family Hobbies Other
31a	Please share your experiences related to the job-demand category 'personal.' Are there specific examples that you can think of where this demand has impacted your job performance?	
32	Rank Job-Demand Category: Workload (defined as the tasks you manage on a day-to-day basis). Rank each item from most demanding (1) to least demanding (20). If you include 'other' you will rank from most demanding (1) to least demanding (21). If you feel any item holds equal weight you can assign them the same value.	Accreditation requirements and related responsibilities Administrative paperwork Admission screening Academic board participation Coordination/development Creating lesson plans Creating new courses Curriculum review/development Developing community partnerships Feedback to students Hiring/Recruitment processes Marking/Grading/Assessing student work Meeting with Students Office maintenance (cleaning, changing light bulbs, painting etc.) Practicum/Field Experience (scheduling and coordinating) Research commitments Resource development Seeking funding Supervising Staff Teaching Other
32a	Please share your experiences with the job-demand category of workload'.	

No.	Question	Selection
33	Job Demand Category: Other Are there any other categories or specific tasks that you would like to identify as a job demand that were not included in this portion of the survey? Please rank and share your experiences with them.	

Job Resources

The following section is designed to find out what resources you feel are essential in managing you job-demands and how much access you have to those essential resources. Resources are "those physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that area either/or functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands and the associated physical and psychological costs, stimulate personal growth, learning and development" Demerouti (2007, p. 312)

Optional comment boxes a provided to you to further elaborate on your experiences and understanding of such resources.

34. Please rank the following job-resource categories from most essential (1) to least essential (>1). These resource categories represent *what you believe to be the most essential* in managing your job-demands. *This does not mean you have access to the resource.* Additionally, please select which major job-demand category you feel these essential resources would most support.

Rank from most essential (1) to least essential (10)	Expectations	External	Higher Education Constraints	Personal	Workload	Other	If you selected 'other' please identify it here. You may use this space to add any additional comments.
Administrative Management							
Classroom materials (e.g. books, videos, equipment/technology)							
Program Components							
Facilities (rooms and access)							
Financial Resources (Programme funding, personal salary)							
Human Resources (staffing)							
Motivation (internal and external factors that keep you going)							
Professional Development (Feedback through appraisal and							

Rank from most essential (1) to least essential (10)	Expectations	External	Higher Education Constraints	Personal	Workload	Other	If you selected 'other' please identify it here. You may use this space to add any additional comments.
evaluation as well as training you receive at conferences and workshops)							
Support (Physical and emotional support you receive personally or professionally)							
Time (The amount of time available to you to conduct work)							

Job Resource Satisfaction

The above job resource categories have been broken down and include specific job resources. Please consider how satisfied you are with your access to the identified resource. Please refer to example below:

Specific Job Resource: "Desk"

Level of satisfaction:

Strongly Disagree: "I don't have a desk, therefore I am not satisfied at all"

Disagree: "I have a desk and it is too small, therefore I am not greatly satisfied."

Neither Agree or Disagree: "I feel neutral on the subject."

Agree: "I have a desk and it is good enough."

Strongly Agree: "I have a desk and it is perfect."

All categories have an *optional* comment box where you can elaborate on your experiences with the job demand resource categories. Although there are guided questions you may choose to add additional information you believe relevant. Please note leaving additional comments is optional and information collected will be used to aid in the data analysis process.

** CLARIFICATION QUESTIONS 40-44 IF YOU NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE PLEASE TYPE NAOD IN THE COMMENT AS THERE WAS A TECHNICAL GLITCH THAT CANNOT BE FIXED.

35. Job Resource Category: Administration/Management. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement “I am satisfied how much of this resource I have” * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: Elaborate on your experiences regarding the administration/management as how they have served as a resource (or not) to you in meeting job demands. Is there something the administration/management does or doesn’t’ do that would be considered a resource to you? If you have selected other please identify it here.
Expertise					
Support					
Other					

36. Job Resource Category: Classroom Materials. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement “I am satisfied how much of this resource I have” * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: Elaborate on your experiences regarding the classroom materials as how they have served as a resource (or not) to you in meeting job demands. Are there particular classroom materials that you need and do not have? If you have selected other please identify it here.
Books					
Sign Language specific videos					
Interpreting specific videos					
Software (PowerPoint, Prezi, voice thread, or other needed subscriptions					
Hardware (computers, video cameras, etc.)					
Pens, Highlighters, Paper					
Other					

37. Job Resource Category: Coping Strategies. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement “I am satisfied how much of this resource I have” * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: Elaborate on your experiences regarding the coping strategies that you implement to manage job demands. Which demands do you find coping strategies to be most useful? If you have selected other please identify it here.
Social					
Physical					
Intellectual					

Please respond to the following statement “I am satisfied how much of this resource I have” * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: Elaborate on your experiences regarding the coping strategies that you implement to manage job demands. Which demands do you find coping strategies to be most useful? If you have selected other please identify it here.
Entertainment					
Personal					
Managerial					
Attitudinal					
Other					

38. Job Resource Category: Program Components. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement “I am satisfied how much of this resource I have” * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: Elaborate on your experiences regarding program components that help you manage job demands. Are there other specific components that you have access to when managing job demands? If you have selected other please identify it here.
Curriculum					
Other					

39. Job Resource Category: Facilities. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement “I am satisfied how much of this resource I have” * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: Elaborate on your experiences facilities at the Higher Education Institution you work. How have they served as resources to you? Is there anything particular that would make them better for you? If you have selected other please elaborate here.
Classroom					
Sign language interpreting lab					
Office space					
Work Room (copier, printer, laminator)					
Other					

40. Job Resource Category: Financial Resources. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement "I am satisfied how much of this resource I have" * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: Elaborate on your experiences regarding financial resources that help you manage job demands. Which specific job demands could additional financial resources help you manage? If you have selected other please elaborate here.
Programme Funding					
Research Funding					
Salary					
Other					

41. Job Resource Category: Human Resources. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement "I am satisfied how much of this resource I have" * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: Elaborate on your experiences regarding human resources at the higher education institution (specifically in the programme you work in) If you have selected other please elaborate here.
Teachers					
Administrative (Secretarial)					
Lab Assistants					
Research Assistants					
Other					

42. Job Resource Category: Motivation. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement "I am satisfied how much of this resource I have" * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	Optional Comment: How has motivation served you as a resource in managing job demands? Where does external motivation stem from? If you have selected other please elaborate here.
Internal					
External					
Other					

43. Job Resource Category: Professional Development. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement “I am satisfied how much of this resource I have” * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	How do you feel about yourself as a professional? Do you feel you have the skill sets needed to manage job demands? If not, what specific areas do you need additional professional development? If you have selected other please elaborate here.
Appraisal/Evaluation from administration					
Appraisal/Evaluation from colleagues					
Appraisal/Evaluation from students					
External training via workshops and conferences					
Mentorship					
Other					

44. Job Resource Category: Support. Respond to how satisfied you are with the mentioned resource

Please respond to the following statement “I am satisfied how much of this resource I have” * Required	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree	How have the above networks served as a resource to you in managing job demands? If they have not served as a resource, why or why not and if you had them as a resource would that be beneficial in managing job demands? If you have selected other please elaborate here.
Administrative/Managerial					
Deaf Community					
External Collegial (Those colleagues outside the higher education institution)					
Internal Collegial (Those colleagues inside the higher education institution)					
IT					
Interpreter community					
Partnerships (business and organizations)					
Other					

45. Are there other resources you deem as essential? If so, what are they and how satisfied are you with your access to the identified resource?

Thank you for completing this survey. By clicking 'finish' you are agreeing that the data collection can be analysed and used for future publications, presentations and research. Remember, before you leave to identify if you are interested in participating in the follow up survey as well as having your email address entered in a draw to win a £100.00 amazon voucher!

46. Are you interested in participating in part 2 of this research on the topics of burnout and work engagement? This follow up will take approximately 30 minutes of your time. * Required

Yes	No

46a. If you selected 'Yes' to participate in a follow up questionnaire regarding burnout and work engagement, please create a unique identifier for yourself. This identifier will need to be remembered and inserted on the follow up questionnaire. This information will be used in the analysis process for cross-referencing purposes. The identifier should include- a four digit number, your favourite colour and the last two letters of your surname (e.g. 1984PurpleBB)

46b. Please provide your email address. This address will be kept separate from the data and only used for sending the follow up survey out.

46c. If you would like your name entered in a draw for a £100.00 voucher to amazon please provide your email address. This email address will be separated from the data.

46d. Would you like to be notified of publications and presentations related to this research?

46d2. Please include your email address to receive information regarding the dissemination of this research. Your email will remain separate from the data.

Appendix D-Phase 3: Instruments

Thank you for your recent participation in the Job Demands and Resources Questionnaire. Your experiences as a sign language interpreter educator are invaluable and I appreciate your insight for this research. I look forward to sharing the data with you. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me. Heriot-Watt University Ethics Committee has approved this research.

This second phase aims to gauge overall wellbeing of sign language interpreter educators and their perceptions of the qualities within work settings that influence feelings related to wellbeing. Included are three instruments that have been used to explore wellbeing in a number of work settings, but have not yet been applied to sign language interpreter educators. The fact that the instruments have been used for other work contexts means that the instruments are a reliable measure of wellbeing. Please go through the following three sections and answer the questions to the best of your ability. This will take you approximately 10-15 minutes, and you can stop and return to the questionnaire at any time.

In the Job Demands and Resources Questionnaire, you created a unique identifier. Be sure to include it, as it will assist in cross-referencing during the analysis process.

The instruments are as follows:

1) UWES-17 Items
2) AWS-28 Items
3) MBI-ES-22 Items.

Please note your participation is voluntary and you can return to the questionnaire at any time. If at any time, you feel you need to discuss the research or possible feelings of frustration or stress while taking this questionnaire, please email me and we will arrange to do so. Your final submission of this questionnaire indicates full consent to participating in this research.

1) You understand the general aim of the research.
2) You understand the researcher is taking every precaution to ensure your anonymity.
3) You understand your responses will be used for data analysis and results will be incorporated into future publications and presentations.

Contact: Stacey Webb sw288@hw.ac.uk

In the Job Demands and Resources Questionnaire, you created your "Unique Identifier" using the format:

4) Numbers, 1 Colour, and 2 Letters

For example: 1984PurpleBB

If you did not use the above format when you created your "Unique Identifier", please be sure to use the exact format that you used when you created your "Unique Identifier".

Section 1 - Work and Wellbeing Survey (UWES))

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, select "Never". If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by selecting the response that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Never; Almost never = A few times a year or less; Rarely = Once a month or less; Sometimes = A few times a month; Often = Once a week; Very often = A few times a week; Always= Everyday

1) At my work, I feel bursting with energy
1) I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose
2) Time flies when I am working
3) At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
4) I am enthusiastic about my job
5) When I am working, I forget everything else around me
6) My job inspires me
7) When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
8) I feel happy when I am working intensely
9) I am proud of the work I do
10) I am immersed in my work
11) I can continue working for very long periods at a time
12) To me, my job is challenging
13) I get carried away when I am working
14) At my job, I am very resilient, mentally
15) It is difficult to detach myself from my job

16) At work I always persevere, even when things do not go well

Section 2 - AWS

Please use the following rating scale to indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Strongly Disagree - Disagree - Hard to Decide - Agree - Strongly Agree

Workload:

I do not have time to do the work that must be done.

I work intensely for prolong periods of time.

I have so much work to do on the job that it takes me away from my personal interests.

I have enough time to do what's important in my job.

I leave my work behind when I go home at the end of the workday.

Control:

I have control over how I do my work.

I can influence management to obtain the equipment and space I need for my work

I have professional autonomy/independence in my work.

I have influence in the decisions affecting my work.

Reward:

I receive recognition from others for my work my work is appreciated.

My efforts usually go unnoticed.

I do not get recognised for all the things I contribute.

People trust one another to fulfil their roles.

Community:

I am a member of a supportive work group.

Members of my work group operate with one another.

Members of my work group communicate openly.

I don’t feel close to my colleagues

Fairness:

Resources are allocated fairly here.

Opportunities are decided solely on merit.

There are effective appeal procedures available when I question the fairness of a decision.

Management rates all employees fairly.

Favouritism determines how decisions are made at work.

It’s not what you know but who you know that determines a career here.

Values:

My values and the organisational values are alike.

The organisations goals influence my day-to-day work activities.

My personal career goals are consistent with the organisational stated goals.

The organisation is committed to quality.

You may enter your views on any aspect of this organization or your work in this box.

Section 3 - MBI-ES

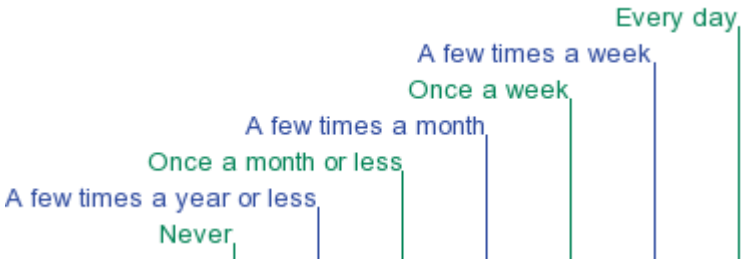
The purpose of the following survey is to discover how educators view their job and the people with whom they work closely.

Instructions: On the following two pages are 22 statements of job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, select the "Never" option. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by the option that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

The phrases describing the frequency are:

1) Never
2) A few times a year or less
3) Once a month or less
4) A few times a month
5) Once a week
6) A few times a week
7) Every day

An example is shown below.



(Sample Question) I feel depressed at work. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ (Sample Question) I feel depressed at work.

If you never feel depressed at work, you would select "Never." If you rarely feel depressed at work (a few times a year or less), you would select ”A few times a year or less." If your feelings of depression are fairly frequent (a few times a week but not daily), you would select "A few times a week."

I feel emotionally drained from my work.

I feel used up at the end of the workday.

I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.

I can easily understand how my students feel about things.

I feel I treat some students as If they were impersonal objects.

Working with people all day is really a strain for me.

I deal effectively with the problems of my students.

I feel burned out from my work.

I feel I am positively influencing other people's lives through my work.

I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.

I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.

I feel very energetic.

I feel frustrated by my job.

I feel I am working too hard on my job.

I don't really care what happens to some students.

Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.

I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.

I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students.

I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.

I feel like I am at the end of my rope.

In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.

I feel students blame me for some of their problems.

This concludes the study.

To submit your responses and exit the study, please select the "Submit" button located below.

Appendix E-Interpreter Project - Codebook

This document will serve as a codebook for the re-coding process of the interpreter project data.

1) Re-Named the column identifiers in a software friendly format (one word/or question number)
2) Country
    a. United States=1
    b. Canada=2
    c. Australia=3
    d. United Kingdom=4
    e. Other (Switzerland, Germany, Ireland, Spain, New Zealand)=5
3) Gender
    a. Female=1
    b. Male=0
4) Identity
    a. Hearing=1
    b. Deaf=2
    c. Other=3
5) Educ (by highest degree obtained plus 1 for each certificate)
    a. PhD=5
    b. ABD=4
    c. Masters=3
    d. Bachelors=2
    e. Associates=1
    f. Diplomas=0
6) TeachYears (Number of years taught)
    a. Averaged Range
7) SignInterp (Sign Language Interpreter)
    a. Yes=1
    b. No=0
8) CertSign (Qualified Sign Language Interpreter)
    a. Yes=1
    b. No=0
9) EmpInstit (Type of Higher Educational Institution)
    a. University=3
    b. College=2
    c. Community College=1
    d. Other=0
10) FTPT (Full-Time/Part-Time
    a. FT=1
    b. PT=0
11) ProgOffered (Type of programme offered)
    a. On Campus=1
    b. Hybrid=0
    c. Online=1
12) ExtAccred (Programme has an external accreditation)

a. Yes=1
b. Other=0
c. Other/Not Sure=-1

13) Agreement Questions
    a. Strongly Agree=2
    b. Agree=1
    c. Neither Agree or Disagree=0
    d. Disagree=-1
    e. Strongly Disagree=-2
14) Part2
    a. Yes=1
    b. No=0
15) Pubs
    a. Yes=1
    b. No=0

SPSS Words and Question Numbers

Variable (SPSS Word)	Question Numbers
Work Demands (Workdem)	25.1, 25.2
Resources (Resources)	25.21, 25.32, 25.49, 25.31
Workload (Workload)	25.2, 25.3, 25.9, 25.10, 26.19, 26.35, 25.7
Student-learning outcomes (StudOut)	26.1, 25.47
Continuing Professional and Institutional Service (ContPD)	25.13, 25.48, 25.23, 25.17
Structure/Administration (Admin)	25.4, 25.36, 25.37, 26.6, 26.9, 26.10, 26.12, 26.26, 26.29
Student number requirements (PassStud)	25.8, 26.33, 26.5
Student number pressure (NumbPress)	25.33, 25.50
Personal responsibility (PersResp)	25.5, 25.14, 25.26, 25.39, 26.37
Pressure and reputation (PressReput)	25.6, 25.15, 25.38, 25.43
Time (Time)	25.11, 25.17, 25.19, 25.22, 25.25, 25.28, 25.28, 25.44
Collaboration (Collab)	25.30, 25.51, 25.53, 26.18, 25.17

Variable (SPSS Word)	Question Numbers
Staffing concerns (Staff)	26.15, 26.30
Student support (StudSupp)	26.3, 26.8, 26.22, 26.13

Appendix F-Regression Models & Coefficient Tables

The research hypothesizes that one's workload impacts student-learning outcomes, which was confirmed by the data. One's workload (t=7.249) impacts student-learning outcomes, as does his/her country (t=2.493).

$$StudOut = \beta 0 + \beta 1\ country + \beta 2\ gender + \beta 3\ identity + \beta 4\ education + \beta 5\ TeachYears + \beta 6\ SignInt + \beta 7\ CertSign + \beta 8\ EmplInstit + \beta 9\ FTPT + \beta 10\ Workload + \varepsilon$$

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.978	1.358		.720	.475
	Country	-.406	.163	-.267	-2.493	.016
	Gender	.077	.520	.016	.148	.883
	Identity	.311	.439	.072	.709	.481
	Educ	.051	.173	.036	.294	.770
	TeachYears	.004	.025	.016	.147	.884
	CertSign	-1.793	.965	-.194	-1.858	.069
	EmpInstit	.018	.171	.011	.105	.917
	FTPT	-.662	.479	-.165	-1.383	.173
	Workload	.332	.046	.750	7.249	.000

a. Dependent Variable: StudOut

The research hypothesized that pressures put on the SLIEs by their administration impacts their satisfaction with the administration, which was confirmed by the data. One's years teaching (t=-2.365), student number pressures (t=-4.087), and part-time or full-time status (t=2.508) impacts satisfaction with the administration. This indicates that the longer someone has been teaching and the more pressure they are receiving to increase student numbers, the less satisfied they are with their administration. However, part-time academics do not express as much dissatisfaction as full-time academics.

$$Admin = \beta 0 + \beta 1\ country + \beta 2\ gender + \beta 3\ identity + \beta 4\ education + \beta 5\ TeachYears + \beta 6\ SignInt + \beta 7\ CertSign + \beta 8\ EmplInstit + \beta 9\ FTPT + \beta 10\ NumbPress + \varepsilon$$

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-3.491	2.249		-1.552	.127
	Country	.258	.263	.111	.981	.331
	Gender	-.237	.847	-.033	-.280	.781
	Identity	.129	.727	.020	.177	.860
	Educ	.234	.283	.110	.828	.411
	TeachYears	-.096	.041	-.281	-2.365	.022
	CertSign	2.366	1.569	.168	1.508	.138
	EmpInstit	.837	.279	.324	3.002	.004
	FTPT	1.881	.750	.309	2.508	.015
	NumbPress	-.819	.200	-.458	-4.087	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Admin

The research hypothesized that time impacts negativity regarding work demands and pressures, which was confirmed by the data. One's time demands (t=5.140), as well as years teaching (t=2.069) and country (t=-2.030), impacts his/her perception of resources. (Note: Time demands was measured as an index of the following statements: 25.11a, 25.17a, 25.19a, 25.22a, 25.25a, 25.28a, 25.28a, and 25.44a)

$$WrkDemRes = \beta 0 + \beta 1\ country + \beta 2\ gender + \beta 3\ identity + \beta 4\ education + \beta 5\ TeachYears + \beta 6\ SignInt + \beta 7\ CertSign + \beta 8\ EmplInstit + \beta 9\ FTPT + \beta 10\ Time + \varepsilon$$

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.243	1.331		-.934	.355
	Country	-.320	.158	-.216	-2.030	.048
	Gender	-.629	.512	-.136	-1.228	.225
	Identity	-.515	.429	-.122	-1.202	.235
	Educ	-.262	.169	-.193	-1.547	.128
	TeachYears	.050	.024	.226	2.069	.044
	CertSign	1.534	.950	.170	1.616	.112
	EmpInstit	.265	.170	.161	1.561	.125
	FTPT	.567	.452	.146	1.257	.215
	Time	.266	.052	.525	5.140	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Resources

The research hypothesizes that time demands negatively impacts student outcomes, which was confirmed by the data. One's time (t=-2.945) impacts his/her student outcomes.

$$WrkDemRes = \beta 0 + \beta 1\ country + \beta 2\ gender + \beta 3\ identity + \beta 4\ education + \beta 5\ TeachYears + \beta 6\ SignInt + \beta 7\ CertSign + \beta 8\ EmplInstit + \beta 9\ FTPT + \beta 10\ Time + \varepsilon$$

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.644	1.789		.360	.721
	Country	-.234	.212	-.154	-1.107	.273
	Gender	.125	.689	.026	.181	.857
	Identity	.095	.576	.022	.165	.870
	Educ	.198	.228	.142	.871	.388
	TeachYears	-.016	.032	-.072	-.504	.617
	CertSign	-1.102	1.277	-.119	-.863	.392
	EmpInstit	.089	.228	.052	.388	.700
	FTPT	.291	.607	.073	.480	.633
	Time	-.205	.070	-.393	-2.945	.005

a. Dependent Variable: StudOut

The research hypothesizes that identifying as deaf impacts student preparedness, which was confirmed by the data. One identity relating to being deaf (t=-2.941) impacts the preparedness of his/her student's to practice.

$$2621a = \beta 0 + \beta 1\ country + \beta 2\ gender + \beta 3\ identity + \beta 4\ education + \beta 5\ TeachYears + \beta 6\ SignInt + \beta 7\ CertSign + \beta 8\ EmplInstit + \beta 9\ FTPT + \beta 10\ NumbPress + \beta 11\ Resources + \beta 12\ Staff + \beta 13\ WorkDem + \varepsilon$$

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.238	.753		.316	.753
	Country	.169	.094	.221	1.789	.079
	Identity	-.723	.246	-.371	-2.941	.005
	Educ	-.048	.101	-.070	-.475	.637
	TeachYears	.004	.015	.032	.238	.813
	CertSign	.240	.627	.052	.382	.704
	EmpInstit	.083	.106	.098	.784	.437
	FTPT	.417	.278	.209	1.498	.140
	WorkDem	-.004	.108	-.004	-.033	.974

a. Dependent Variable: 2625a

The research hypothesizes that a high workload results in students being passed that should have been held back, which was confirmed by the data. One's workload (t=4.370) impacts the passing of students who were not ready to move forward.

$$265a = \beta 0 + \beta 1\ country + \beta 2\ gender + \beta 3\ identity + \beta 4\ education + \beta 5\ TeachYears + \beta 6\ SignInt + \beta 7\ CertSign + \beta 8\ EmplInstit + \beta 9\ FTPT + \beta 10\ Workload + \varepsilon$$

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.108	.762		1.454	.152
	Country	-.184	.102	-.220	-1.804	.077
	Educ	.041	.106	.054	.382	.704
	TeachYears	.001	.016	.006	.044	.965
	CertSign	-1.007	.637	-.197	-1.579	.120
	EmpInstit	-.087	.111	-.093	-.780	.439
	FTPT	-.306	.301	-.140	-1.018	.313
	Identity	.109	.256	.051	.427	.671
	Workload	.132	.030	.540	4.370	.000

a. Dependent Variable: 265a

Finally, the research hypothesizes that pressure from the administration results in students being held back that should have been passed, which was confirmed by the data. One's pressure from the administration (t=5.115) impacts his or her passing of borderline students who should have been held back.

$$265a = \beta 0 + \beta 1\ country + \beta 2\ gender + \beta 3\ identity + \beta 4\ education + \beta 5\ TeachYears + \beta 6\ SignInt + \beta 7\ CertSign + \beta 8\ EmplInstit + \beta 9\ FTPT + \beta 10\ 2633a + \varepsilon$$

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.123	.727		1.544	.128
	Country	-.130	.095	-.155	-1.364	.178
	Educ	-.021	.103	-.028	-.202	.841
	TeachYears	.008	.016	.067	.525	.601
	CertSign	-.404	.616	-.079	-.656	.515
	EmpInstit	-.067	.106	-.072	-.634	.529
	FTPT	.134	.277	.061	.486	.629
	Identity	-.150	.246	-.070	-.608	.546
	2633a	.472	.092	.583	5.115	.000

a. Dependent Variable: 265a

In addition to the above regression models and correlation tables that have prebviously been presented in the thesis in section 4.7, the following regression tables were also used and in some instances show areas of signifciance. It is the relationships of signicicant variables that can be a guide for areas for future research.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.476	1.082		2.288	.026
	Country	-.004	.126	-.005	-.036	.972
	Gender	-.168	.413	-.061	-.407	.686
	Identity	.181	.348	.073	.520	.605
	Educ	.043	.137	.053	.310	.758
	TeachYears	-.016	.020	-.121	-.803	.426
	CertSign	-1.469	.768	-.276	-1.911	.062
	EmpInstit	-.091	.136	-.094	-.670	.506
	FTPT	-.262	.367	-.114	-.713	.479

a. Dependent Variable: WorkDem

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.476	1.082		2.288	.026
	Country	-.004	.126	-.005	-.036	.972
	Gender	-.168	.413	-.061	-.407	.686
	Identity	.181	.348	.073	.520	.605
	Educ	.043	.137	.053	.310	.758
	TeachYears	-.016	.020	-.121	-.803	.426
	CertSign	-1.469	.768	-.276	-1.911	.062
	EmpInstit	-.091	.136	-.094	-.670	.506
	FTPT	-.262	.367	-.114	-.713	.479

a. Dependent Variable: WorkDem

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.801	3.083		.260	.796
	Country	.327	.358	.133	.914	.365
	Gender	.379	1.177	.049	.322	.749
	Identity	1.162	.992	.166	1.171	.247
	Educ	.102	.391	.045	.261	.795
	TeachYears	-.039	.056	-.106	-.697	.489
	CertSign	-.671	2.189	-.045	-.306	.761
	EmpInstit	-.175	.389	-.064	-.449	.655
	FTPT	1.118	1.046	.173	1.069	.290

a. Dependent Variable: PressReput

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.782	3.942		-.452	.653
	Country	.424	.458	.134	.925	.359
	Gender	-1.118	1.504	-.113	-.743	.461
	Identity	.729	1.268	.081	.575	.568
	Educ	-.027	.500	-.009	-.054	.957
	TeachYears	-.014	.071	-.031	-.203	.840
	CertSign	3.530	2.799	.184	1.261	.213
	EmpInstit	.047	.497	.013	.095	.925
	FTPT	1.203	1.338	.145	.899	.373

a. Dependent Variable: Collab

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.566	1.838		3.029	.004
	Country	-.172	.210	-.117	-.817	.418
	Gender	.046	.689	.010	.067	.947
	Identity	.177	.595	.042	.297	.768
	Educ	.204	.230	.151	.887	.379
	TeachYears	.047	.033	.217	1.450	.153
	CertSign	-1.813	1.305	-.203	-1.390	.171
	EmpInstit	-.018	.232	-.011	-.078	.938
	FTPT	-.354	.635	-.092	-.558	.579
	ConPD	.068	.112	.091	.611	.544

a. Dependent Variable: PersResp

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.243	1.331		-.934	.355
	Country	-.320	.158	-.216	-2.030	.048
	Gender	-.629	.512	-.136	-1.228	.225
	Identity	-.515	.429	-.122	-1.202	.235
	Educ	-.262	.169	-.193	-1.547	.128
	TeachYears	.050	.024	.226	2.069	.044
	CertSign	1.534	.950	.170	1.616	.112
	EmpInstit	.265	.170	.161	1.561	.125
	FTPT	.567	.452	.146	1.257	.215
	Time	.266	.052	.525	5.140	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Resources

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.041	2.308		.884	.381
	Country	.230	.268	.125	.859	.394
	Gender	.449	.881	.078	.510	.612
	Identity	-.036	.742	-.007	-.049	.961
	Educ	.210	.293	.125	.718	.476
	TeachYears	-.062	.042	-.229	-1.500	.140
	CertSign	-1.357	1.639	-.121	-.828	.411
	EmpInstit	-.084	.291	-.041	-.290	.773
	FTPT	.158	.783	.033	.202	.841

a. Dependent Variable: PassStud

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